

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 252 973

EA 017 489

AUTHOR Malpica, Carlos; Rassekh, Shapour
TITLE Educational Administration and Multilevel Plan Implementation: Experiences from Developing Countries. Contributions to IIEP Seminars Held in November 1979, November 1980 and to an IIEP Workshop Held in December 1980.

INSTITUTION United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). International Inst. for Educational Planning.

PUB DATE 83
NOTE 205p.

AVAILABLE FROM IIEP Publications, International Institute for Educational Planning, 7-9 rue Eugene-Delacroix, 75116 Paris, France (Order Number F.74; 15.00 francs).

PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Viewpoints (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Organization; Bibliographies; *Developing Nations; Educational Administration; *Educational Planning; Educational Research; Foreign Countries; Intermediate Administrative Units; *National Programs; National Surveys; *Organizational Communication; State School District Relationship; Vertical Organization

IDENTIFIERS Bangladesh; Costa Rica; India; International Institute for Educational Planning; *National Development; *National Planning; Peru; Tanzania

ABSTRACT

Eight papers, each presented at one of three conferences sponsored by the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), are published together in this collection. It provides an overview of the current interest in developing nations in the role of administration in educational development, particularly as that role involves the coordination of administrative efforts at different levels (national, regional, local, and institutional) in the furtherance of national educational policy objectives. The papers are: "Decentralisation in Educational Administration: The Third World Perspective" (Anil Bordia); "Regionalisation of Education: Lessons from Some Experiences of Latin America" (J. B. Bernal); "Education and Sectoral Development at Local Level--An Integrated Approach" (S. N. Saraf); "Experience of Educational Microplanning in Peru through Nuclearisation" (G. Ruiz-Duran); "The 'Nuclearization' Programme in Costa Rica" (Carlos E. Olivera); "Multi-level Educational Planning and Administration in India" (M. V. Mathur); "Integrated Planning in Tanzania--The 1972 Decentralization and the 1975 Village Acts" (Omar R. Mapuri); "A Crash Programme in Mass Education: The Experience of Bangladesh" (M. Selim). An extensive introduction places the papers and their subjects in the broader context of IIEP's ongoing research efforts concerning the place of educational administration in the educational planning process. A substantial bibliography of relevant materials is appended. (PGD)

ED252973

Educational administration and multilevel plan implementation: experiences from developing countries

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as
received from the person or organization
originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve
reproduction quality.

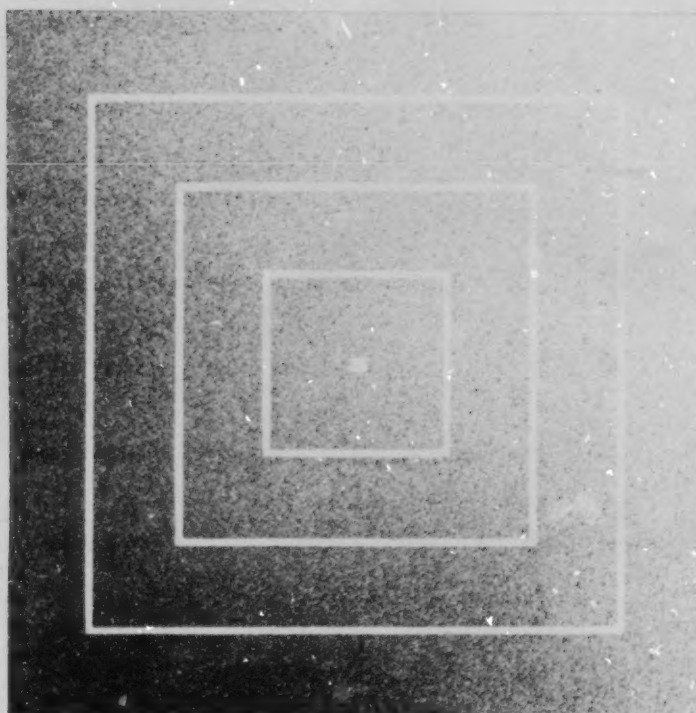
- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY
HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

J. Hall

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Selected IIEP seminar papers



prepared by
Carlos Malpica
and
Shapour Rassekh

International Institute for Educational Planning
(established within the framework of Unesco)

EA 017 489

Educational administration and multilevel plan implementation: experiences from developing countries

Contributions to IIEP seminars
held in November 1979,
November 1980 and to an
IIEP workshop held in
December 1980

prepared by Carlos Malpica and Shapour Rassekh

International Institute for Educational Planning
(established by Unesco)

Composition and make-up by IIEP
7-9, rue Eugène-Delacroix, 75116 Paris
December 1983

© Unesco 1983

FOREWORD

This volume on "Educational administration and multilevel plan implementation: experiences from developing countries" is based on the results of two international seminars organised by the IIEP in Paris before I became the Institute's Director in March 1982. The first of these meetings, which was held in November 1979, had as its theme "The organisation of educational reforms at the local level", while the second, organised a year later, discussed "Micro-planning methods in formal and non-formal education". The only exception to this among the documents included here is the paper by Mr. M. Selim which was taken from a Workshop held in December 1980 dealing with "Administrative problems in the generalisation of innovations". Certain of the other documents which were prepared for the above-mentioned seminars were selected for publication by the Unesco Education Quarterly, "Prospects", to form part of the contents of two volumes on "Educational reforms at the local level"(1), which also included the document on the same subject written by a group of IIEP staff members. The reason which prompted the Institute to retain the eight papers in a single volume is that, apart from their intrinsic value, they go beyond a simple description of microplanning techniques and the analysis of microadministration of education. They show in various ways how education at the local level may be linked more smoothly to other administrative levels (intermediate and national) of education as well as to various other socio-economic sectors and to the micro level of government activities.

IIEP, since its inception, has been interested in identifying the relations between the administration and management of educational systems, on the one hand, and the formulation and implementation of educational development plans, on the other. As indicated in the Introductory Note to this publication, the Institute's research activities in the course of the past decade reflect the successive orientations given to studies carried out in this field. The

(1) Prospects, Vol. XI, Nos. 1 and 2, Paris, Unesco, 1981.

Institute's studies on microplanning and reform at the local level have brought out the fact that it is essentially at this level that optimum conditions prevail for achieving a measure of coordination not only between education and other government agencies and branches, but also between education, and other semi-public and private organisations and the community.

However, the Institute's interest in planning and management of education at the local level has not been developed as a substitute for the "macro" approach. Thus the documents selected for inclusion in this volume clearly illustrate the concern that a more harmonious and efficient articulation be achieved between different administrative levels (institutional, local, regional and national) in the process of formulation, implementation and evaluation of educational policies, taking into account the contributions and rôles of all actors involved at the various levels. Such an approach demands that due account be taken of various conflicting forces, which dynamically interact when processes of deconcentration or decentralisation are set into motion or altered.

It was under the able guidance of my predecessor, Michel Debeauvais, that my colleague Carlos Malpica of the Institute and a consultant, Shapour Rassekh, jointly organised the 1979 and 1980 Seminars and Workshop. They both prepared this publication and provided the necessary orientation for the drawing up of the Selective Bibliography by Françoise du Pouget, of the IIEP Documentation Centre. The editing of the documents was carried out by Joyce Collins of the secretarial staff of the Institute.

Sylvain Lourié
Director

CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
I. INTRODUCTIONARY NOTE by Carlos Malpica and Shapour Rassekh	1
II. DECENTRALISATION Decentralisation in educational administration: the Third World perspective by Anil Bordia	23
III. REGIONALISATION Regionalisation of education: lessons from some experiences of Latin America by J.B. Bernal	49
IV. THE DEVELOPMENT AREA APPROACH AT THE LOCAL LEVEL Education and sectoral development at local level - an integrated approach by S.N. Saraf	65
V. THE NUCLEARISATION APPROACH Experience of educational microplanning in Peru through nuclearisation by G. Ruiz-Duran	83
The "nuclearization" programme in Costa Rica by Carlos E. Olivera	100
VI. THE MULTI-LEVEL APPROACH Multi-level educational planning and administration in India by M.V. Mathur	121
Integrated planning in Tanzania - the 1972 decentralization and the 1975 village acts by Omar R. Mapuri	148
A crash programme in mass education: the experience of Bangladesh by M. Selim	165
VII. SELECTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY prepared by the Documentation Centre, IIEP	185

I. INTRODUCTORY NOTE

by Carlos Malpica
Shapour Rassekh

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

by Carlos Malpica
Shapour Rassekh

I. The Context - the work of the IIEP in the domain of educational administration

The study of educational administration has been one of the designated responsibilities of the IIEP since its inception. A series of research, training activities and publications has been produced since 1969 from which it can be seen that administrative aspects have been studied from different angles in parallel with the emphasis of research being carried out on educational planning.

Thus the initial activities organised by the IIEP were aimed at making an overview of the subject matter and considering the techniques which might be useful. This was done in two international seminars, the first being on "Administrative aspects of educational planning" held in Paris in 1969(1). The seminar had a general character and served to draw up a guide to the most important problems, which it was concluded, stemmed mainly from putting into practice operations associated with the processes of the educational system and plan implementation. In 1970 a second seminar was organised on "Management and decision-making in educational planning"(2), which dealt with techniques and modern methods of management, the possibilities of applying them in the field of education, and processes implied in decision-making at the various levels of education.

However, the first step to making an empirical analysis of actual educational administration focussed on the local level as a complement to

- (1) LYONS, R.F. (ed.), *Administrative aspects of educational planning*: an IIEP seminar, 23 June - 4 July, 1969, Paris, IIEP, 1970.
- (2) KRAVETZ, N., *Management and decision-making in educational planning*: an IIEP seminar, 20 - 28 July, 1970, Paris, IIEP, 1970.

the IIEP's involvement in research on microplanning. This was the project begun in 1973 on "Primary School Inspection"(1), whose objective was to study the functions and working methods of the inspectorate in relation to efforts to improve teaching-learning, note those practices and organisational arrangements which seemed to be effective and draw conclusions on operations, staffing and training. Six case-studies were carried out(2) which contributed to the Institute's understanding of personnel problems at the local level, the division of labour of supervisors as between professional and administrative tasks and the need for improved vertical and horizontal communications at all levels in relation to the preparation and monitoring of reforms and their implementation. This research gave rise to a regional seminar in Bangkok in 1977 on "Administrative support for educational reform"(3).

The subsequent project on administration carried out from 1976-78 on "The organisation of education in rural areas", though still at the local level, explored through case-studies (Nepal and Sudan)(4) the extent to which organisation as such contributed to the efficiency of education. Given existing political relationships, financial parameters and educational conditions, to what extent does administration avail itself of all the resources which are present and which could reasonably be expected to be forthcoming? The studies reinforced the conclusion that national plans, for a number of reasons, represent the imposition on localities of decisions which may not necessarily take account of local needs or the resolution of local difficulties in implementing decisions. The need to improve communications and information flows between the levels of administration was seen to be acute. In 1979, the synthesis of this project was made in a regional seminar held in Kathmandu(5).

-
- (1) LYONS, R.F. & PRITCHARD, M.W., *Primary School Inspection: a supporting service for education*, Paris, IIEP, 1976.
 - (2) LYONS, R.F. & PRITCHARD, M.W., *Nigeria, Pakistan, Peru, Venezuela, Zambia, Algeria: primary school inspection*, IIEP Research Reports, Nos. 11-16.
 - (3) LYONS, R.F., *Administrative support for educational reform: an IIEP/ROEA Seminar*, 21-25 February, 1977, Paris, IIEP, 1977.
 - (4) LYONS, R.F. (ed.), *Organisation of education in remote rural areas*, Paris, IIEP, 1980.
 - (5) LYONS, R.F., COLLINS, J., *Problems of educational administration in remote rural areas*, Report of an expert meeting in Kathmandu, 7-11 May, 1979, Paris, IIEP, 1980.

This very abbreviated resumé of work up to 1979 shows the trends and criteria underlying the Institute's work on educational administration which served to bring into proper perspective the concept of administration as a link in the overall chain of designing, implementing and evaluating plans, and the role that administration should play in supporting educational planning at national, regional, local and institutional levels. Thus the distinction formerly made between planners and administrators gave way to a wider conception based on the complementarity of their respective roles (see Unesco Medium Term Plan 1979-82, Objective 5.2 and IIEP Medium Term Plan 1979-83).

Since this date, several of the Institute's most recent courses, workshops and seminars have contributed to focussing administrative research, training and publications on a more integrated approach, i.e. the seminars, "The organisation of educational reforms at the local level" (1979), "Microplanning methods in formal and non-formal education" (1980), as well as that in 1980 on "Administrative problems of the generalisation of innovations" and the 1981 regional workshop in Managua, Nicaragua, on "The experiences of implementation of educational reforms in Latin America(1). A series of three intensive sub-regional courses on these themes was organised (Caracas, Venezuela 1980 and 1982, and San José, Costa Rica, 1981).

As to research, continuity was given to the project on primary school inspection by studies on "The role of supervision in the implementation of educational reforms" begun in 1979 in Nepal and Costa Rica(2).

The IIEP has also been associated since 1979 with a study on the planning of monitoring and evaluation systems in India. This project, which concentrates on providing elementary education through non-formal programmes is conducted jointly with NCERT, New Delhi. It has developed a framework for built-in monitoring and evaluation, and designed and tested tools and instruments (the report is to be published in 1983). This experience provided the basis for the launching in 1982 of a research and training project on evaluation and monitoring of educational reforms in Africa which aims at:

(1) Shortly to be published by IIEP.

(2) WHEELER, A.C.R., *The role of supervision in improving the teaching/learning process in Nepal*, IIEP Research Report No. 39, Paris, IIEP, 1980. Costa Rica study by Olivera, C.E. to be published shortly by IIEP.

- developing built-in procedures for reform evaluation in order to guide and improve the implementation of reform programmes;
- strengthening evaluation competency in the countries concerned;
- sensitizing policy-makers, planners and administrators to the need for built-in evaluations.

An equally new research project, launched in 1981-82 makes direct enquiries into the use of information and communication by the actors involved in carrying out and monitoring educational programmes at different administrative levels. Four national case-studies are being conducted on significant large scale educational innovations which pose serious implementation and monitoring problems, i.e. Nicaragua (Collectives for Adult Education and Teachers' Workshops for evaluation, programming and in-service training), Peru (out-of-school early childhood education programmes), Venezuela (Basic Education Programme) and Costa Rica (educational regionalisation programme).

x x x

The above shows the antecedents and the context of the work of the IIEP in the field of educational administration and management and illustrates the way IIEP's research has come closer to filling the gap that still exists between policy and practice, in particular, the lack of analysis of the network of dynamic relations between different levels of educational planning and administration and among the diverse actors involved.

To summarise the present situation, as has been stated, IIEP has oriented its studies on educational administration and management from the viewpoint of planning the development of education, taking into account the different levels of planning intervention (policy level, organisational, production and impact levels), and the macro and micro perspectives from which educational administration may be analysed. In effect, from the planning viewpoint, administrative aspects of educational development cover three themes:

- (a) study of structures and processes of administration and management taking the educational system in its widest sense;
- (b) study of specific administrative aspects of the processes of formulation and approval of policies and plans for educational development;

- (c) study of the role of educational administration and management in the implementation and evaluation of these policies and plans.

Consequently, IIEP efforts in the field of educational administration and management have been oriented towards assisting:

- (a) planners to deal in a more appropriate way with administrative factors and problems;
- (b) administrators to achieve a greater and more useful involvement in policy-making and plan formulation, as partners of the planners;
- (c) developing countries to improve their administrative systems as regards policy preparation and plan implementation.

II. Discussion of the Theme

(1) The concept and role of administration

One may define administration in three different ways, all of which are, however, closely linked. First, from the structural point of view, administration is defined as an "ensemble" of organised structures governed by a hierarchy of superordinate-subordinate relationships, within a social system.

Secondly, administration may be defined in functional terms as the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the system(1).

Finally, administration may also be defined from the operational point of view as an ensemble of concrete operations which are reflected in interactions between different persons - the efficacy of which are of crucial importance.

Administration is thus a social process within the context of a social system organised to accomplish a certain number of functions, of which one of the most important is the implementation of policies decided upon by the political powers(2).

- (1) See GETZELS, J.W., LIPHAM, J.U. & CAMPBELL, R.F., *Educational Administration as a social process: Theory, Research, Practice*, New York, Harper, 1968, pp. 52-53.
- (2) Bernard Gournay establishes a distinction between principal, auxiliary and command functions of (.../...)

If what is mainly required from administration in the domain of education is the application and concrete implementation of relevant policies, then it must be admitted that administration has a central place in any educational plan worthy of the name.

(2) The study of educational administration and management

For more than a decade now, several particular factors have made the study of the administrative process (that is, the area of implementation of objectives and policies) not just useful but indispensable:

The first factor is the unprecedented development of educational systems not only in quantitative (number of pupils, schools, teachers, etc.) but also in qualitative terms (diversification of study programmes, reinforcement of inspection and control, introduction of school and professional career guidance, etc.) which has as a matter of course been reflected in the expansion and growing complexity of administrative structures and has provoked the question of the need to perfect management methods for these structures.

The second factor is that the considerable resources allocated to education have over the last few years tended to stabilise or even diminish due to economic and financial constraints encountered by the majority of countries. This new development has made efficacy in expenditure on education particularly important.

The third factor is the seeking of greater relevance of what is taught and learnt for the needs of society and the economy, i.e. the disappointing condition of the labour market for some years has provoked a situation which calls not only for reforms of educational objectives and content but also for change in administrative structures (for example, the

(.../...)

administration (i.e. public administration). Among the latter functions attaching directly to the exercise of state authority, he lists among other items the preparation of decisions and the organisation of services (see *Administration*, 1976, Ch. I). See also HOY, W.K. & MISKEL, C.G., *Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice*, New York, Random House, 1978, pp. 40-46 and MALPICA, C.N., *Educational administration and its relations with planning and research*, (Unesco IIEP Fundamentals of Educational Planning: Lecture-Discussion Series, No. 66), 1980, p. 6.

introduction of productive work in schools necessitates frequent contact of school administration with the general administration of employers and companies, that is, it necessitates more flexible and open structures).

The *fourth factor* concerns the failure in numerous countries to advance further in the creation of equal educational opportunities and social preferment, which has led several governments when faced with pressure from their populations, to intervene more energetically in this domain and to institute appreciable improvements in management methods and the disposition of administrative structures.

The *fifth factor*, of recent interest in the study of the administrative dimension and its consideration in educational development plans, is a consequence of increased emphasis on the political aspects in reform projects. Numerous governments are engaged in large national reform projects which have induced them to weigh up more objectively the limits of their own educational administrations and to become more aware of defects and deficiencies. It is known, to give only one example, that many central authorities have realised that without the solid support of the public, a reform will not continue long enough to obtain its objectives. Thus they have instituted more flexible structures to give greater opportunity for the participation of the people concerned in the particular reform process.

(3) Development-oriented administration and the management of innovations

Formerly there was a general tendency to consider administration as a system solidly established on previously set norms, and only apt at accomplishing routine tasks, whereas nowadays administrators are asked to play an innovative role to contribute both to expansion and change in education, that is, administration has to acquire a development-oriented character. Studies are thus needed to find out what are the required conditions in order that administration might fulfill this new role. For G. Zaltman and his colleagues(1), three main characteristics of administration (the ensemble of organisational structures as expressed by the authors) influence implementation of change in education: (i) complexity; (ii) formalisation, and (iii) centralisation. Complexity itself means that implementation of

(1) ZALTMAN, G., FLORIO, D., SIKORSKI, L., *Dynamic educational change, models strategies, tactics and management*, New York, Free Press, 1977.

change will take more time. It is also evident that formalisation of procedures does not always provide a predisposition to change. As to centralisation, it is considered in some quarters that it assists rapid decision-making but the question could be asked whether this does not give rise to, at the implementation level of plans thus decided upon, many difficulties being encountered which would be avoided by a decentralised and participative approach. The examples may be given here of allowing some measure of local autonomy in the implementation of national policies, or of measures of democratisation of administration at the local level, such as deconcentration and regionalisation. As T. Malan has said(1), though decentralisation is defined as the devolution of responsibilities and resources to legally independent authorities while deconcentration only transfers responsibilities to local authorities which are still hierarchically dependent on the central power, in practice both measures have in common the effect of bringing decision-making closer to those who know local reality better. As to regionalisation, certain reservations have been expressed in regard to its complexity and diversity in practice(2), for example, a region may be based on geographical, cultural, economic or administrative criteria, or on a combination of any of these, it may not always affect in the same degree all state functions, or imply greater actual redistribution of decision-making powers. In some countries regions in their fullest sense do not exist but have to be organised, while in others education services administered at various government levels coexist in the same area. Regionalisation also carries with it the risk of dislocation and duplication of effort and bringing into play new interest groups(3).

(4) Towards an integrated educational administration

Certain previous work of the IIEP has already shown the quite important role of inspectors and supervisors in vertical liaison between local and

-
- (1) MALAN, T., Educational reforms and bureaucratic phenomena in *Educational reforms: experiences and prospects*, Paris, Unesco, 1979.
 - (2) DUVIEUSART Baudouin, *Régionalisation et planification - un nouveau thème de recherche pour la planification de l'éducation*, Paris, IIEP, 1977. (Cahiers de l'IIEP, No. 46).
 - (3) MALPICA, C., *idem*.

higher levels of administration(1). The roles of other actors on the educational scene remain to be demonstrated(2). What are the elements or forces which may work in favour of the change and those which offer resistance to it at various levels? And if there are conflicts of interest in the face of change, can coordination or integration really take place? It is known that the needs of centralised and decentralised approaches and structures are not the same. While the former demand unity and homogeneity, the second require differentiation and dynamism. How may the internal coherence of administration of reforms be ensured when faced with these two apparently opposing tendencies?

By integration is meant the most complete form of coordination, but in the context of this synthesis, the definition proposed by the sociologist, Talcott Parsons, may be adopted: the function of integration consists of ensuring necessary coordination between units or parts of a system (or of their functions) particularly as concerns their contribution to the organisation and functioning of the whole. To put it in more concrete language, integration between different levels is expressed by:

- (a) harmonious division of tasks and complementarity of functions carried out;
- (b) regular communication between the relevant levels;
- (c) resolution of the problem of contradictory interests of different actors;
- (d) harmonisation of the tendencies to unity and diversity.

As to harmonious division of roles and tasks and the complementarity of functions, among the studies undertaken in more developed countries, those published by OECD 10 years ago under the title "Case-studies of

-
- (1) See amongst other studies carried out by the IIEP on this theme: LYONS, R.F. and PRITCHARD, M.W., *Primary school inspection: a supporting service for education*, Paris, IIEP, 1976.
WHEELER, A. et al, *The role of supervision in improving the teaching-learning process in Nepal*, Paris, IIEP, 1980.
OLIVERA, C.E., *El papel de los supervisores en los procesos de reforma de la educación: el caso de Costa Rica*, Paris, IIEP, 1982.
 - (2) For the role of administrators of budget and accounts see CRISPIN, A., *Relationships between central and local authorities with respect to budgetary control of education expenditure*, Paris, IIEP, 1979.

educational innovation" (1) may be mentioned. This series of monographs and the analysis of their conclusions covers 17 innovative projects in various developed countries.

The harmonisation of functions and tasks is evidently not just a purely technical question. It must not be forgotten that group interests are also at work and that political pressures can make coordination between different management levels particularly difficult. The local level very often has the difficult task of solving problems arising from the implementation of a reform or an innovation. Two conditions must be met in order that this level may carry out such a function - the first is that there should be a real delegation of decision-making power to local authorities, for if the delegation of power is only nominal, it will not contribute to solving any problem. The second condition is that there should be adequate preparation of educational personnel and teachers for their tasks. A variety of experiences have shown that in addition to this preparation, it is also necessary to provide motivation (moral or material) for those responsible for implementing changes since circumstances do not always engender a spontaneous moral commitment.

A factor which impedes not only harmonisation of tasks but also the flow of information is, as is rightly pointed out by Mr. Mathur, a too great a multiplicity as well as complexity of organisations. These two problems are compounded by the lack of both team spirit and the habit of working in groups.

(5) Administration and information-communication

As to communication and information, which is another important aspect of coordination, the documents in this volume clearly show the negative effect on the progress of reforms of the absence of an appropriate mechanism for the diffusion of information. Information is necessary at all stages of the implementation of a reform - it is important in obtaining the loyalty of the personnel concerned and their active commitment vis-à-vis objectives and values (see R. Adams et al. *The process of educational innovation*, Paris, Unesco Press, 1981). It is indispensable for ensuring

(1) OECD-CERI, Paris, 1973. Vol. 1. deals with the local level, Vol. 2 with the regional level, Vol. 3 with the school level and finally Vol. 4 covers strategies of educational innovation.

the acceptance of and participation by the public in the reform (see R.G. Havelock and A.M. Huberman, *Solving educational problems*, Paris, Unesco, 1978). It also plays a vital role in the coordination of actions envisaged within the framework of the reform, particularly as regards vertical relations between the three levels of educational management.

The information, whose regular and systematic exchange is indispensable for the success of a reform, is of two kinds, i.e. certain data is of the "general report" type, while other data is of an evaluative nature. The first serves to keep everyone aware of what is going on in the field; the second is useful, by providing feedback, in bringing improvements or necessary corrections to the reform itself(1).

It is well known that information to be of value must be up-to-date, pertinent, exact and precise. But the interests of the different groups concerned often diverge and their perceptions of a particular piece of information are not always identical. Two actions are therefore necessary:

- (a) search for the minimum amount of information on which a general consensus can be obtained as to its indispensability;
- (b) the presentation of a policy by the decision-makers should be such as to make it appear both advantageous (in comparison with previous arrangements) and compatible (with the needs, values and past experience of the community concerned) (2).

(6) Educational administration and group interests

As concerns the problem of the divergent and even contradictory interests among various actors and beneficiaries, in existing literature, even that from democratic countries, reference is often made to the importance of the

-
- (1) As concerns the importance of exchange of information and the manner of its organisation for use in a reform process, see W.L. MELLOR, *Dynamic Information Systems in an Educational Environment*, Educational Administration Quarterly, Spring 1977, and also the paper *Issues of Information Exchange in the Process of Reform Generalisation*, presented to the IIEP December 1980 workshop.
 - (2) For characteristics of innovations (or of reforms) which contribute to their adoption and diffusion, see ROGERS, E and SHOEMAKER, F., *Communication of Innovations*, New York, Free Press, 1971.

leadership of Ministries of Education and the sometimes real need to resort to an authoritarian strategy (coercion by power) in order to ensure vertical coordination between different management levels. However, other strategies have been recommended to ensure horizontal coordination (within and external to the education sector) e.g. negotiation and compromise, re-education, exchange of information and other similar strategies which in practice are found to be more efficacious(1).

Among the groups concerned, that of management (administrators) in general and teachers in particular are the most influential - this was the conclusion of the OECD CERI research previously mentioned. These groups are evidently very sensitive to anything which may affect their prerogatives and power. Therefore they should not be prevented from taking part in the decision-making destined to modify either roles or relations between roles, or the organisational structures of education. Teachers also evidently have an interest in any change of pedagogical content. On the other hand, a number of studies give the impression that central decision-makers consider as their prerogative any policy which touches on the objectives and functions of education.

But since reforms often demand at the same time a change of objectives, functions, structure and roles, as well as content of education, the interests of the various groups frequently overlap and coordination becomes the crucial factor. It is rarely possible to arrange participation of all individuals concerned and participation has often to be effected by means of local representation of the relevant groups. It is therefore not surprising that certain persons refuse to make a total commitment to the reform and from this stems the need to resort to complementary actions like information(2), training, motivation, etc.

-
- (1) See amongst others, ZALTMAN, G. et al. *idem.* reference 5). Also BENNIS, R. et al. *The Planning of change*, New York, Holt Rhinehart and Winston, 1969, and DALIN, P. *Limits to educational change*, London, Macmillan, 1978.
 - (2) M.C. SUTARIA, on the basis of experiences in the Philippines in the field of management and evaluation reforms, concludes with some reason that the success of a reform depends on the coordination and cooperation between all persons responsible for its implementation and that this coordination depends in turn on the existence of a functional communication network between all units responsible (see article in *Prospects*, Paris Unesco, Vol. XI, No. 2, 1981).

Certain countries have experimented with the formation of "integrated teams" for the coordinated implementation of development projects. Others have gone as far as introducing an integrated approach at the plan conception stage (e.g. the region of Nicoya, Costa Rica, analysed by J.B. Bernal). The adoption of such an approach, as remarked upon by Mr. Saraf, allows the specification of the contribution required from each sector, organisation and group and at the same time facilitates coordination and coherence at the implementation stage.

If the integrated approach at conception and implementation of the plan is not feasible, other solutions may be envisaged: negotiation and compromise, nomination of coordinators, arbitration by the central or regional power, etc.

x x x

This rapid review of the administration of educational development from the particular point of view of co-ordination of actions between institutional, local, intermediate and national levels, shows the immensity of the research field which has opened up before us. The reasons why management and implementation of educational change within a development context have become objects of increasing interest to planners and researchers have already been mentioned. It only remains to add that it is the local level, i.e. the level at which education is really given, where it integrates with other sectors and is subject to social participation, which is being accorded more and more consideration. It should also be noted that while the number of studies on each of the levels of educational management is vast, there are very few studies devoted to the analysis of the network of dynamic relations between these three levels, the problems involved and the solutions which have been instituted to overcome them.

III. Summary of the Papers

Eight documents have been selected for this volume, the majority of which were presented to a seminar organised in November 1980 by the IIEP on the subject of "Microplanning Methods in Formal and Non-Formal Education". In order to provide a logical reading sequence, they have been grouped under different headings, each of which represents a different approach to educational management at a given level or within a particular space or area, i.e.

- (a) Decentralisation in the sense of a transfer of power or the delegation of certain functions or authority from the centre to lower levels;
- (b) Regionalisation;

- plan implementation
- (c) Development area approach at local level
 - (d) Nuclearisation as a particular form of local level structure
 - (e) Multi-level approach

It is evident that the concept of articulation is not restricted to these approaches alone but they represent various modalities of articulation which may be applied according to a particular case.

(1) Decentralisation

The word decentralisation is used to describe two entirely different situations:

- some educational systems may be considered as decentralised because from the very beginning they adopted the local level as the basis for decision-making, as is the case with the United States of America;
- In other cases, decentralisation identifies a movement away from centralism as a later evolution in the development of the educational system and due to the wish of the centre or the wishes of local populations for more responsibility for education to be taken at local level, more resources to be found on the spot, etc.

Mr. Bordia's paper deals with this second type of experience. He therefore takes a different viewpoint from that of the OECD(CERI) researchers who have carried out their survey particularly on countries where educational initiatives come above all from the local level, as in the United Kingdom. The paper in question deals with countries having very different socio-political structures, but all of them belonging to the Third World. The fact that moves towards decentralisation originated at the centre is supported by the typology of decentralised structures presented by the author. In some countries (Benin, Tanzania, Burma, Guinea-Bissau), the party in power committed itself to a policy of participation of the people in the process of change; in other countries (Senegal, Nicaragua, India, Sri Lanka) certain institutions were created and positioned to carry out decentralised functions. Sometimes it is the central authority (Bangladesh, Nepal) who introduces decentralisation by decree and it is the same central power which presides over, regulates and controls the process of decentralisation. Finally, the paper mentions a few other

countries who have undertaken decentralisation as part of a general reform of their public administration or as a response to the exigencies of a particular project (as in Indonesia and Thailand). All are attempts to obtain improved contact and response by the centre from the local level, and as Mr. Bordia notes, there is a strong counter current to centralisation (swing of the pendulum phenomenon). Nevertheless, where such measures have been instituted they have imparted a certain flexibility and vitality to the administrative system.

(2) Regionalisation

There are countries where the regions are natural or historical facts (like Switzerland with its four linguistic regions). But there are others in which regionalisation is a matter of political will or purpose stemming from the wishes of the upper levels of the political hierarchy at the centre or from the demands of socio-economic interests in the regions. The paper of Mr. J. Bernal describes the essential characteristics of recent experience in this regard in the field of educational administration in seven Latin American countries (Costa Rica, Chile, El Salvador, Ecuador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama). One of the principal considerations for instituting regionalisation in the states mentioned has been the intention to reduce social and geographical inequalities existing in these countries(1). Amongst the most important objectives of the Latin American project on Regionalisation were the promotion of decentralised and participative decision-making and management in education. The project provided a general framework within which each country had its specific sub-project but the whole is followed up and evaluated by the Central American Institute of Educational Administration and Supervision (ICASE), an Institute of the University of Panama. Regional planning and regionalisation of educational administration pose a certain number of problems of a functional and geographic order which the author considers in his paper, among them: determination of the region; adaptation of educational policies to varying conditions; training of regional staff and establishment of institutions,

(1) But the author also remarks that regionalisation has not always been willingly instituted by the central power, since it has sometimes been demanded for reasons of political independence (the Basque region in Spain is an illustration) or of culture (the case of Belgium is typical in this respect).

and the implementation of horizontal and vertical coordination mechanisms for the activities carried out.

(3) The development area approach at local level

This approach aims at articulating education with development efforts either at the local level or within a limited geographical area, i.e. it concentrates on horizontal articulation. The paper by Mr. Saraf is based principally on the Indian experience and in it he draws attention to three modalities of articulation.

- (a) incorporation of education and formal and non-formal training in general development programmes (e.g. training of staff for a health project);
- (b) launching of integrated development programmes in a particular region or for a specific group with a training component;
- (c) organisation of crash programmes to meet the essential needs of the poorest at local level in order to give them the possibility of taking part in the economic development of the region.

The practical and administrative problems posed by integration of development efforts (including those for human resources, i.e. education) at the local level are many and varied, and Mr. Saraf gives a list of some of them. In order to overcome such problems, in addition to a firm political commitment, the following are to be recommended: (a) an inter-sectoral cooperation strategy in which the contribution expected from each sector is specified; (b) flexibility and adaptability of the central structure as regards the needs and conditions of local communities, in particular in the use of resources made available by the centre; (c) delegation of power to local administration.

It should also be noted that the paper by Mr. Mapuri, in the last section of this volume, while describing a multi-level system, also gives a detailed description of the approach adopted in Tanzania at the local level.

(4) Nuclearisation

Two experiences have been presented under this heading, of which one concerns Peru and the other Costa Rica, and again they are examples of

horizontal articulation involving community participation and multi-sectoral cooperation. It should, however, be remembered that the nuclearisation model was initiated in neither of these countries, but in a third, Bolivia, which introduced this innovative idea at the beginning of the 1930s(1), inspired by the cultural and social community traditions of the indigenous Andean population. Approximately 15 years passed before this innovation acquired a reputation and was gradually disseminated northwards to other Latin American countries. While, originally, it was advocated as a means to help liberate the indigenous Indians, peasants and other less favoured groups by means of easy access to instruction and culture, and subsequently as an instrument to mobilise the participation of the masses in community life, these aspects were forgotten in other countries where nuclearisation was seen rather as a means of rational and harmonious distribution and management of educational institutions in a network to cover a relatively limited space. It is interesting to note that the educational reform in Peru during the 1970s returned to the origins of the innovation, trying to put more emphasis on the aims of liberation, social justice and popular participation without neglecting the technical and organisational aspects. In the case of Costa Rica, it will be seen that the primary idea at the basis of nuclearisation attempts, was to make secondary schools the centre of a network of lower level schools and an instrument to improve the quality of education given by these neighbouring schools. A second idea was soon added, i.e. that of rationalisation of administration within the framework of nuclei. Finally, it was seen as a means of achieving articulation of education with community and regional development.

Another characteristic which distinguishes the Peruvian experience from the Costa Rican is that in the first country nuclearisation was generalised and spread throughout the country, including urban areas, whereas in Costa Rica it was adopted and applied only in rural regions. It can be seen also that the intentions or aims of nuclearisation were not always converted into concrete results since some of the objectives like participation have had a limited success in practice. The success of

(1) As regards the creation and expansion of this model, see the publication in Spanish of E. Perez on *The Warisata School* 1962 (quoted by C. Malpica in *Education and the Community in the Peruvian Educational Reform* 1980 *International Review of Education* XXVI.)

nuclearisation as an educational development depends on a number of factors among which are most importantly the existence of adequate and sufficient information for each nuclei, the availability of sufficiently qualified and motivated personnel, sufficient technical and material resources and facilities for travel and communication within each region, provision of coordination mechanisms and efficient leadership by the Ministry responsible for the whole operation.

(5) Multi-level approach

In this part of the volume, three papers are given, of which the first by Mr. Mathur has a general character while the other two concern concrete examples of the multi-level approach in practice.

The contribution of Mr. Mathur is not confined only to showing how education is planned and administered in India at three levels - national, regional (states) and local or sub-regional, but also describes the organisational links which exist between the three levels and the way coordination is achieved, taking as a basis the case of one of the 22 states, Jammu and Kashmir. It shows the parallelism of the three planning levels (centre, state, district) and the process of plan elaboration at each level, as well as the inter-relationships and interactions between the three plans. A particularly interesting aspect of this paper is the co-ordination system which has been institutionalised as a task of the councils and committees of planning and development at each of the three levels (National Development Council, State Planning Board and District Development Committee). This channel is the means by which the education sector is harmonised with other sectors of development.

The multiplicity of departments and offices within the education system itself in addition to the inadequate flow of information between the different levels and sectors of education, and the absence of team spirit and group work, has meant that coordination is not always what was hoped for. To these limiting factors must be added the absence of a real system of integrated planning since each of the different economic sectors does its planning work independently.

As to the case-studies, these concern the experience of Tanzania in decentralisation and establishment of local government and that of Bangladesh in carrying out a mass education programme. The Tanzanian paper shows how the association of two factors - motivation inspired by

political ideology at the summit of the hierarchy and the participation of the masses by means of "villageisation" and administrative decentralisation can provide the foundation for success of educational reforms. The author describes certain actions undertaken in Tanzania to prepare for the delegation of authority to the local level: i.e. designing the structure of the new administrative system, designation of new posts; determination of salary levels; recruitment and training of staff for this purpose; trial periods for those recruited; encouragement and/or creation of local institutions capable of undertaking new tasks delegated by the centre. The paper stresses the importance of the role played in the new decentralised structure by members of the political party in power. In effect, it is the Secretary of the Party at regional level, who, as Regional Commissioner, directs and coordinates all activities in the region, with the assistance of the Regional Development Director. Since 1975 a form of local government has been instituted in Tanzania to ensure the participation of this level in development work. Such participation has produced very positive results. Nevertheless, problems still exist, the two most important being lack of qualified personnel at the village level and the absence of sufficient experience in management of a regional and local planning system.

As to the experience of Bangladesh, the basic idea here is once again that of associating administration and the people (including students) to carry out a programme, this time on literacy and mass education. The local level was given the opportunity to play a role in the organisation, and the paper describes the functions and roles of each level and group (See Annex I of the paper) in implementation, coordination remaining the responsibility of the central authorities who directed the overall "crash programme". A notable difference to the Tanzanian experience is that in Bangladesh much support had to be obtained from *ad hoc* organisations created especially for the programme and on the mobilisation of voluntary agents.

x x x

The eight papers which comprise this volume clearly show the diversity of approaches adopted in different countries in dealing with planning, implementation and administration of educational programmes at various levels and areas of application. They also show the difficulties of obtaining a harmonious articulation between different (politico-administrative) levels and between different sectors. The diversity reflected in the specific situations does not, however, impede readers from drawing valuable conclusions and lessons for their attempts to establish improved coordination and articulation of planning and administration in their own educational systems.

DECENTRALISATION IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION:
THE THIRD WORLD PERSPECTIVE

by Anil Bordia
Consultant, IIEP

Definitions

For the purposes of this paper and in the context of developing countries, the phrase educational administration is used to denote the administrative role of the entire apparatus, from an educational institution to the sub-provincial, provincial and national levels, which is entrusted with the responsibility to plan and implement educational programmes. Such a role includes defining the purposes and goals of education, leadership, decision-making in respect of certain allocated authority, implementation of decisions, monitoring, budgeting, financial control, etc.

Similarly as regards terminology various words are used for the devolution of authority and responsibility in educational administration: decentralisation, deconcentration, autonomy, etc. As far as the developing countries are concerned, although there are countries with federal constitutions which provide for "legal independence" in certain areas for provincial (and even sub-provincial) authorities, in reality such "legal independence" is generally a myth and in practice the extent of devolution and exercise of powers by authorities below the central level is determined by the central (in the case of provincial) and the provincial (in the case of sub-provincial) authorities. Similarly, the extent of autonomy is dependent on the decisions of the central/provincial authorities. Hence, in this paper though only the term decentralisation is used, it encompasses some elements of deconcentration and autonomy.

Plan of the paper

In this paper an attempt is made (i) to take note of trends in educational systems of developing countries and to show that decentralisation is an

administrative imperative; (ii) to recapitulate the factors which militate against decentralisation; (iii) to illustrate these conclusions with the help of two short country case-studies; (iv) to review the various types of decentralisation; and (v) to make certain proposals regarding concrete actions that may be taken in the direction of decentralisation.

I. EDUCATIONAL TRENDS

Almost all developing countries share an unquestioning faith in formal education as a means of progress and modernisation, and their governments are faced with an insatiable demand for wider educational opportunity. Consequently, all countries are having to grapple with an unprecedented expansion of the educational system and growth of public expenditure on education to a staggering level. Parallel with these trends, most developing countries are becoming increasingly conscious of the need for improved quality and relevance of education and are also giving more importance to non-formal and informal education. These trends are inevitably leading to the need to take a fresh look at the administration of educational programmes.

1. Expansion of the system of formal education

It has been estimated by John Vaizey that between 1945 and 1975 total school enrolments and the number of teachers may have quadrupled(1). Total world enrolments in formal educational systems (excluding China, North Korea and North Vietnam) expanded from an estimated 222 million in 1950 to 557 million in 1975. Even more significant than the past increase is the projected increase up to the year 2000 (Table 1). According to Unesco's projections, the countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America may increase their enrolment by 416 million between 1975 and 2000, compared to the actual increase of 252 million between 1975 and 2000.

The trend of population increase is such that even to maintain the existing enrolment ratio, developing countries will have to make a serious effort. For example, Latin America will have to achieve a 28% increase in enrolment by 1985 and 75% by 2000 just to maintain the 1975 enrolment ratio, viz 77.9. But to attain the rate envisaged by Unesco, the increase will have to be 41% (for 1985) and 108% (for 2000). The corresponding increases

(1) John Vaizey, *Perspectives of the Implementation of Educational Reform, in Educational Reforms, Experiences, & Prospects*, Paris, Unesco, 1979, p. 104.

Table 1. Absolute regional enrolment increases (1950-75) and Unesco's projections 1975-2000

Regions				(in millions)	
	Actual and Projected Enrolment			Required Net Enrolment Increase	
	1950	1975	2000	1950-75	1975-2000
World Total	221.50	557.41	1 004.85	335.91	447.44
Africa	9.33	52.92	164.33	43.59	111.44
Asia	67.00	220.01	432.19	153.01	212.18
Latin America	17.26	72.32	167.15	55.46	94.33

Note: Does not include mainland China, North Korea and North Vietnam.

Asia includes Japan.

Source: ICED calculations using Unesco data.

for South Asia are similar to Latin America; they are much higher for Africa.

Expansion of this magnitude has important implications for educational planning and administration. An obvious aspect is more careful planning at the local level to ensure that access to schooling becomes possible for the entire population. But the more important issue is the effort involved in drawing into the educational fold those children who have so far remained outside the system. Families who can easily send their children to school are likely to have already done so; the unenrolled children belong mostly to families who have not been attracted so far by the formal system of education. The process of obtaining their involvement is complex and necessitates the participation of the parents through their own education as well as by giving them a say in educational management.

The second important aspect of expansion of the system of formal education is the increase in the number of teachers. Satisfactory administration of the various issues connected with teachers is a pre-condition for tackling problems of quantity as well as of quality. Some of the issues in this regard are mentioned below.

(1) Teachers

- (a) Teachers' working conditions: Expansion in number of teachers makes it inevitable that matters connected with conditions of service of teachers are decentralised.

Unless this is done, there can be difficulties affecting the morale and, therefore, the performance of the teachers.

- (b) Unionisation of teachers: Several developing countries are faced with unionisation, which may range from formation of professional and academic associations to belligerent trade union type activities. This development requires thoughtful and sympathetic handling by educational administrators.
- (c) Teacher education: One of the critical issues in improvement of quality of education is teacher education. While initial (or pre-service) training of teachers often needs to be dealt with at the provincial level, programmes of non-formal continuing education which have a greater bearing on the quality of education, are given at the local level.

(2) Schools

It is natural that with increase in enrolments and emphasis laid on widening access to education, particularly in the rural areas and for girls, there should be a tremendous increase in the number of schools. In several countries a large number of primary schools are single-teacher schools, which greatly increases the complexity of management problems. The administrative implications of rapid increase in the number of schools are:

- (a) School supervision: School supervision becomes enormously difficult because of unsatisfactory transport and communication facilities. In several countries there is also the problem of teacher absenteeism (i.e. teachers absenting themselves from schools without due permission).
- (b) Construction and maintenance of school buildings: Funds are rarely provided out of public finances for school buildings when new schools are sanctioned. Local level administrative personnel generally have to leave it to the local community to raise resources for buildings. An equally important problem is building maintenance due to scarcity of funds and/or procedural problems.

- (c) Purchase and upkeep of equipment: In developing countries, particularly among the least developed ones, there is a tendency to provide only the bare minimum of equipment for educational activity. In the case of primary schools, often only the teachers are provided. Even where equipment is furnished (e.g. in secondary schools for science teaching or for libraries) the procedures prescribed are so cumbersome that their full use is seldom possible.

2. Increase in public expenditure

Educational expenditure throughout the Third World has increased proportionately faster than GNP, e.g. taking all developing countries together, it increased from 2.3 per cent in 1950 to 3.9 per cent in 1974, according to Unesco data.

It is obvious that national governments cannot go on increasing the share of funds allocated to education in their financial planning. Even to maintain the existing enrolment ratio would require massive additional funds - and an attempt to universalise primary education and improve its quality would require resources well beyond the capacity of most developing countries. Added to this is the growing energy crisis, the inclination of many developing countries to increase military spending and, of course, the claims of other sectors of development. The implications of this situation for educational planning and administration need to be examined.

Determined efforts are required to improve the efficiency of the system. In the context of this paper, this has three distinct dimensions. Firstly, the development of systematic programmes to reduce wastage - particularly drop-out of children between class I and the conclusion of the primary stage. In most developing countries the drop-out rate has remained very high, in spite of efforts to universalise primary education. (For example, in India this rate has remained at about 60 per cent between 1950 and 1978). This would necessitate better teacher performance greater involvement of the local community, improved supervision, etc. Secondly, it is desirable that the basic educational skills acquired in school should be put to use through creation of learning networks and peoples' organisations. Although not a great deal of research has been done to measure relapse to illiteracy among persons who have completed primary education, or to measure

the use/disuse of the basic educational skills acquired during schooling, it would be safe to say that its contribution to family planning, agricultural and industrial production, improved sanitation, etc. is much less than should be possible. Deterioration of educational skills to the level where they become non-functional is common. And, thirdly, there is a need for better financial management. Decisions which affect day-to-day running of schools would be more efficient if decentralised.

Possibilities could be examined to secure a much greater contribution from the population to the financing of education. There are already several impressive examples of the manner in which voluntary work in education can influence its quality and can reduce the burden on government. Over 50 per cent of educational expenditure for secondary and higher education in the Philippines comes from private institutions; the Harambee schools in Kenya, to which the local community and the parents make a sizeable contribution, have greatly reduced the burden of secondary education on the state exchequer; Colombia and Peru also have a considerable private sector in secondary and higher education. If such contributions could be secured without necessarily creating a parallel system of education, there is much to be said in favour of it. A way out of the impending financial impasse would be by transforming education from a government-run enterprise to a peoples' movement. Then it would be possible to engage locally educated youth as part-time teachers (many educators in developing countries believe that "full-time professional teachers" in primary schools are in fact part-time workers - putting in only 3-4 hours a day in school); to utilise local village resources (farms, workshops, etc.) as laboratories; put healthy pressure on parents to send and keep their children in school, and so on.

3. Relevance of Education

In practically all developing countries questions relating to the relevance of education are being raised, and possible answers explored. These issues include the relationship of education to development and manpower needs, its quality, the importance of the environment, attention to non-formal education, linking education with cultural identity, etc.

Education is more and more looked upon as an investment in human capital, to be linked with the overall plans of countries, and the importance of education conforming to national goals is being stressed. Referring to the needs of developing countries, the eminent Indian scientist,

M.S. Swaminathan, says "Education is not meant merely to adapt pupils to their society, but also to equip them to alter it"(1). Although in the developing countries it is practically impossible to make accurate forecasts of manpower needs and, therefore, to link education to manpower development, yet, in general terms, developing countries cannot escape the need to link higher and professional education to the type of personnel that developmental plans require. Similarly, and this may be of greater relevance in most developing countries, if the country is primarily agricultural, it follows that agriculture should be the base around which the educational curriculum should be constructed. Correlation of education with development requires linking of educational programmes with the local economic activity and with social concerns. This in turn requires a close contact with the social milieu and with structures and persons responsible for local level development planning and implementation(2).

Apart from relating the content of education to development needs, the problem of quality of education needs to be given special attention. As has been shown by Beeby, this question relates principally to teachers; their education, their morale, their commitment, etc. With reference to the emergent countries, he refers to the "ineffectiveness of bare theory as an instrument of educational reform"(3). Theories and concepts on the quality of education have to be spelt out in the form of reforms, broken down as implementation strategies, and effectively executed.

Another way of discussing educational relevance is to recall the basic questions being asked about the sanctity of teachers in the system, and about teaching, text-books and schooling itself. The shift of emphasis in educational planning from teachers to pupils and from teaching to learning implies that new types of learning systems must be created - for teachers

-
- (1) M.S. Swaminathan in his Zakir Hussain Memorial Lecture entitled "Agricultural Transformation and Opportunities for a Learning Revolution", University Grants Commission, New Delhi, 1970.
 - (2) There are some significant observations in C. Tibi's paper on the "Administrative Relationship between Economic Planning and Educational Planning", in the report of the IIEP Seminar published under the title *Administrative Aspects of Educational Planning*, Paris, 1970.
 - (3) Beeby, C.E., *The Quality of Education in Developing Countries*, Harvard University Press, 1966, p. 109.

as well as for students(1). To give reality to this idea (as Bronowski says: "Knowledge is not a loose-leaf notebook of facts") educational programmes would have to centre around the environment. Recently, several states in India have introduced environment-based science education programmes. Teachers are encouraged to take initiatives in the use of the local flora, fauna, minerals, clays, tins and bottles discarded by families, etc. to organise "laboratory" experiments. Tentative results compiled by State Science Education Institutes have shown that this has engendered a spirit of adventure among the students, a new kind of initiative among the teachers, and even the village community feels involved in the programme.

While non-formal approaches are beginning to significantly influence the school system, non-formal education is also emerging as an important complementary system. As has been argued by Naik, in most developing countries it is improbable that schooling can provide an answer to the challenge of universalisation of elementary education(2). Besides, if education is to assist the endeavours of the developing countries to grapple with crippling poverty and malnutrition, there is no alternative to the organisation of non-formal education programmes for children of pre-school age, for out-of-school youth and for adults, particularly women(3). Several countries already have large nation-wide programmes for youth and adults (e.g. Nicaragua, Tanzania, Vietnam, Brazil, India and Ethiopia), and it is probable that in the next few years many more will launch such programmes. A remarkable example of a decentralised non-formal education programme (of course with an element of centralisation as well) is provided by Vietnam's village broadcasting programme. Each village is provided with a small transmission unit, and practically every family has a medium-wave transistor set. The transmission unit relays national broadcasts for about one-third of the broadcasting time, provincial or the district broadcasts for one-third and the remainder of the broadcasting time is used for discussion of local

-
- (1) The International Commission on the Development of Education has emphasised this aspect of future educational strategy. In particular, see p. 160-165 in *Learning to be*, Unesco, Paris, 1972.
 - (2) Naik, J.P., *Perspectives on Non-Formal Education*, Indian Council of Social Science Research, New Delhi, 1977.
 - (3) For a thorough treatment of this aspect, see Philip H. Coombs's (with R.C. Prosser and M. Ahmed) *New Paths to Learning to Rural Children and Youth* (1973) and (with M. Ahmed) *Attacking Rural Poverty: How Non-Formal Education can Help*, (1974).

village problems, communicating deliberations of the local leadership and other types of local community work programmes. Given the unique problems Vietnam has faced for the last several years, the local transmission system has admirably served the purpose of mobilisation for self-defence and local development.

Most developing countries have re-examined the question of cultural identity. Within these countries, the various linguistic, ethnic and social groups have been pressing their claims to cultural rights. They plead for policies which recognise unity in diversity. A recent report to the Club of Rome has laid emphasis on this aspect of learning, as follows:

"Cultural identity is a perception, a sense of meaning, an integrated context, a set of human relations and values, all of which are proper to learning. A long-term perspective to make these perceptions fully and reciprocally synergetic will be required, because this form of autonomy is conditioned by learning cycles ..." (1)

To sum up, it can be seen that decentralisation of educational planning and administration would be useful from the point of view of (a) linking education with development and manpower needs; (b) bringing about qualitative improvement; (c) implementing some of the recent thinking on learning strategies and environmental orientations; (d) giving more emphasis to non-formal education of adults, out-of-school youth and pre-school children; and (e) meeting the urge for reassertion of cultural identity in the Third World countries. And yet, only a few developing countries have made successful attempts to decentralise educational administration, and even those countries are not noted for clarity of policy and persistence in this regard. In the next section, the principal obstacles to decentralisation of educational administration will be examined with a view to exploring feasible alternative approaches to implementation of decentralisation policies.

II. FACTORS MILITATING AGAINST DECENTRALISATION

In recent years the Third World countries have been preoccupied with sheer survival of their increasing populations, with an urge to give vent to a spirit of religious revivalism, or with a search for the appropriate political system. It was natural that only a few countries paid attention to problems

(1) Botkin, James W., Mahdi, Elmandjra, Malitza, Mireca, *No Limits to Learning*, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1979, p. 115-116.

of educational management. The following seem to be the reasons why there has been little decentralisation.

1. Economic and political situation

Most of the developing countries continue to face a serious economic crisis. The World Bank has estimated that due to the increase in the price of oil, payments imbalances and the probability of decrease in foreign aid, the economies of most of the developing countries are likely to grow more slowly than in the 1970s(1). A large number of the Third World countries are actually unable to feed their increasing populations and are preoccupied with the problem of survival of their people. In a large number of countries, including such populous countries as India and Bangladesh, the absolute numbers as well as the percentage of people living below the poverty line have considerably increased.

As to the political situation, the number of authoritarian regimes is increasing in the Third World, many of them controlled by the military. Consequently, state power has grown at the expense of the ordinary citizen. Religious revivalism often has the same result as take-over by a military junta. In the foreseeable future, these authoritarian forms of government are likely to be the dominant form of political situation in Third World countries.

What are the administrative implications of authoritarianism? Firstly, much greater centralisation. In authoritarian forms of government, the source of power is generally a remote person, or a group of persons, from whom flow directions on all important (often also unimportant) matters. Secondly, the emergence of authoritarianism gravely undermines the established administrative apparatus. The hierarchy of military personnel, party cadre, clergymen, etc. is more important. Since these people often have, or are assumed to have, access to the centre of authority, they influence and manipulate administrative functionaries. Another implication of authoritarianism is procedural ad hocism. Sometimes even laws are disregarded in order to obtain certain desired objectives. Administrative personnel tend to give much less importance to propriety and observance of the prescribed procedures, and prefer to take orders from the available representative of the central authority.

(1) The World Bank, *World Development Report*, 1980, Washington, 1980, p. 3.

2. Weakness of institutional structures

After independence, there was little effort to strengthen the institutions created by the colonial power or to set up new ones. For example, the British created municipal bodies, many of whom were expected also to have some responsibility in the field of education. Over the years, however, due to unrestrained urbanisation, depleting finances and lack of support from the central authority, the municipal bodies have lost much of their vitality and effectiveness. In many countries there are voluntary organisations which contribute significantly to educational programmes at the local level; these have also tended to be neglected and are being made a part of the centralised politico-administrative system.

Practically all developing countries have their own traditional institutional structures, which have survived the colonial past. These institutions include religious organisations, ethnic/clan formations or village leaders' groups sanctified by convention. These institutions have traditionally maintained order in the communities and have been held in respect, even awe, by the people. They were seldom expected to run any services systematically (Christian missionary institutions being a significant exception) and were rarely encouraged by the emergent Third World country governments to share any administrative authority. Quite the reverse, the power exercised by these traditional institutions was looked at with envy by the central authority. Even where it was intended to give these institutions some administrative authority (as in the case of a recent Decree in Nepal, giving authority to the panchayats), there was little in common, except name, between the traditional institutions and those now being created.

3. Inadequacy of educational administration

Administrative decentralisation presupposes the existence of a reasonably adequate and efficient machinery. Unfortunately, little data is available regarding size, efficiency and performance of the administrative systems responsible for the management of education in developing countries.

Table 2 gives the proportionate of total public expenditure on education spent on administration in respect of selected developing countries. It should be noted that in the case of some of these countries the data includes other items of expenditure, e.g. the figures in respect of Peru include expenditure on teacher training and educational research. Nevertheless, they show that

in practically all the countries expenditure on educational administration is much less than the reasonable level of 10 per cent of developmental project costs. In countries such as India and Bangladesh, the percentage of expenditure on educational administration varies between 2 and 3 per cent.

Table 2. Expenditure on Educational Administration as a Proportion of Total Public Expenditure on Education in Selected Developing Countries (1970 - 1977-78)

Country	Proportion	
	1970	1977-78
Madagascar	8.00	9.90
Nigeria	7.50	9.00
Mexico	2.20	4.20
Peru	6.50	6.30
India	2.50	2.30
Indonesia	6.10	4.80
Syria	8.60	7.00

Source: Unesco Statistical Yearbook 1978-79.

Apart from insufficiency of size of the educational administrative system, its quality and efficiency also leave much to be desired in practically all developing countries. Not unnaturally, selection of educational administrators is confined almost exclusively to teachers, and they reach senior positions in the later stages of their careers. Their background equips them to grapple with educational issues, but they may not possess much competence in administrative matters. This deficiency is rarely made up by systematic training and continuing education programmes. Few developing countries have good training establishments for educational administrators. Communication and information systems are almost invariably unsatisfactory, with the result that up-to-date data is seldom available to the administrators and the flow of communications is tardy. Naturally, monitoring of educational programmes hardly ever fits into the administrative system and heavy routine curbs innovation and initiative. Administrative procedures are invariably cumbersome and dilatory; add to that the picture of an aging educational administrator not accustomed to taking administrative initiatives and we have the ingredients for a dysfunctional administrative system.

These are some of the reasons why decentralisation of educational administration has not been a widespread phenomenon in developing countries. This is, however, not to say that several notable examples are not available in the Third World. In the next section, brief surveys of the situations in two countries are made(1) and generalisations drawn to the extent possible.

III. SUMMARY OF COUNTRY EXPERIENCES

1. People's Republic of Benin(2)

Reform of the educational system was promulgated in June 1975 by a law called "Orientation of the National Education System". It aimed at "planning educational structures to adapt them to the needs of independent social and economic development". The Educational Reform leading to the establishment of the New School also stated that "no educational problem can be solved separately, it is rather a developmental problem of which the educational problem forms an important part". The ideological objective of the New School was to liberate the people from dependence on foreign orientations and to prevent exploitation; its economic objective was to link education with production; its social objective was to provide equal opportunity to free and compulsory education; and its cultural objective was to prevent cultural alienation and introduce the national language as the medium of instruction.

-
- (1) Editor's Note: The author of this paper based his conclusions on the experiences of India and Peru also but since these are recounted in other papers included in this volume, the summaries given were deleted. Additional experiences to support the generalisations can also be found in the papers from Costa Rica and Tanzania.
- (2) Based on (i) Pliya, Jean, *Educational Reform and Available Resources: An example from the People's Republic of Benin*, Paris, Unesco, Educational Reforms: Experiences and Reports, 1979.
- (ii) Houeto, Colette S., *The Training of Teachers and of Teaching Instructors for Implementation of Educational Reform in Benin*, (mimeo), Paris, IIEP, 1980.
- (iii) Unesco, *Eleven Experiences in Innovations in Decentralisation of Educational Administration and Management of Local Resources*, Paris, 1980 (the summary in respect of the Benin experience is based on Houeto, Gary-Laurent, *Planification et administration de l'éducation en République Populaire du Benin*).

After a great deal of thought, the Government of Benin established what were considered to be appropriate administrative structures. Three Ministries were created at the central level: (i) Ministry of Primary Education, (ii) Ministry of Technical and Higher Education, and (iii) Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sports. Each of the Ministries has three divisions, namely a General Division, a Studies and Planning Division, and a Financial and Administrative Division. In order to improve the quality of research and teacher training, the central government established the National Institute for Training and Research in Education (INFRE). Similarly the People's Educational Centre for further education and initiation to Production (CPEPIP) was created to promote non-formal and literacy programmes. The administrative structure at the provincial and local levels is as follows:

Table 3. Provincial and Local Level Administrative Structures in the People's Republic of Benin

Territorial Divisions	Educational Structures	Numbers
Provinces	Provincial Educational Department	6
Districts	District Educational Division	84
Communes	Educational Counsellors	152
Village and Town Districts	Heads of Establishments	2 072

Note: The numbers refer to the year 1978.

The administrative personnel, particularly the Educational Counsellors, not only provide pedagogic guidance and continuous training to the heads of institutions and teachers, but also take part along with other field level functionaries in socio-economic activities.

Benin's "democratic centralism" is intended to work somewhat in the following manner. Initial stimulus is given by the higher authorities of the Party and the State. Keeping in view the objectives of the national plan, teachers group together to make proposals in respect of their institutions. The proposals go up to the district level where an initial synthesis is prepared with the help of Educational Counsellors. All the syntheses coming from the district level are summed up and finalised under the provincial Director of Education. The work of the provinces is then referred to the INFRE where necessary readjustments are made to ensure

overall methodological and pedagogical coherence. Thereafter, the programmes go to the political decision-makers through the Ministry concerned. Then the programmes are sent back in the form of administrative decisions for implementation at the field level. Very precise instructions are issued so that even the volunteer teachers can follow them and conform to the national ideals.

The critical level of decentralisation is the school itself. Practically each school has a co-operative and a production programme, and in the school programme the environment is intended to be "the source, object and end of knowledge"(1). The teachers are expected to undertake a constant evaluation of their programme. A sizeable share of the expenditure involved in the running of schools is met out of the income from the school co-operatives and their production programme.

After about five years, the need was felt to introduce some new elements for educational reform. Accordingly, after experimenting in six communes, an operation known as Education and Development has been launched throughout the country, which aims at greater involvement of development functionaries, of parents and the community itself, and particularly the teachers and the headmasters, in the programme of school reform. The operation is based on a careful survey of the environment and the community, on a severe assessment of the schools through creation of awareness by collective reflection of all the people concerned. It provides for retraining of teachers and personnel in the administrative structures and formation of local committees to secure active involvement of the community and the teachers.

It is too early to attempt an appraisal of the tremendous effort being made in Benin to achieve endogenous development by placing reliance on the inherent strengths of the people and using education as a means of people's involvement in the process of development(2).

(1) Houeto, Colette S., *op. cit.*

(2) Although none of the educationists on whose writings this short country experience has been prepared (see footnote on page 23) say so, there is a marked similarity between the Tanzanian experience and that of Benin. Benin's emphasis on training of teachers and administrative personnel seems to be a very promising effort not to ignore the qualitative aspect of education.

2. The Philippines(1)

The year 1972 was important for education in the Philippines; for during that year the Educational Development Decree was promulgated and steps were taken to implement the Integrated Re-organisation Plan for Educational Administration. The three principal bureaus of Public Schools, Vocational Education and Private Schools were re-organised into Bureaus of Elementary Education, Secondary Education and Higher Education. Besides, four important service groups were set up, namely:

- (a) the Planning Service;
- (b) the Financial Management Service;
- (c) the Administrative Service; and
- (d) the Information and Publication Service.

In 1975, regional offices were established, each under the charge of a Regional Director. Under this structure, the responsibility of the Ministry is to promote educational development, while the local units (at the regional, divisional and district levels) have responsibility for implementation of plans and to secure local participation. The shift from a highly centralised to the decentralised system has been a difficult process. In the first couple of years there was confusion regarding respective rôles, lack of clear understanding of objectives and frequent problems in the communications network. In spite of these, the new system seems to work with greater efficiency and has, on the whole, been better equipped for decentralised planning and implementation.

-
- (1) Based on (i) *A Handbook on Decentralised Educational Planning* (focussed on the Depressed, Dis-advantaged, Underserved (DDU) Elementary Schools) Planning and Programming Division, Ministry of Education and Culture, Manila, 1977.
 - (ii) *Manual of Operations for the Decentralised Educational Development Planning Activity* (DEDP), Educational and Development Projects Implementing Task Force, Ministry of Education and Culture, Manila, 1979.
 - (iii) Fontanoza, Elisabeth S., *Equalisation of Educational Opportunities: the Current Concern of the Philippine Educational System*, (unpublished document, prepared for the International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris), 1980.

There has been a growing awareness in the Philippines of the inter-relationship between increasing poverty(1) and educational deprivation, referred to in official documents as "the educational poverty line"(2). Consequently, the Ministry of Education and Culture has initiated a number of programmes to reduce inequalities within communities, among regions and between institution and institution. It has also been stated that programmes to reduce educational disparities must be related to local circumstances and, therefore, decentralised planning and implementation have become indispensable.

The Decentralised Educational Planning Focussed on the Depressed, Disadvantaged and Underserved Schools Programme (DEPP-DDU) was launched in 1977 and is to last until 1984. It aims to spread services and resources to children in the disadvantaged and underserved regions of the country. With an overall plan to make planning more responsive to local needs, the programme attempts to enlist grassroots-level participation in the preparation of local level plans - at district, divisional and regional levels. The project includes establishment of a planning machinery in the regions and organisation of seminars and workshops for continuing planning skills development. The DEPP-DDU programme has been implemented in six of the thirteen regions.

Influenced by the Sontele study(3), the Programme for Decentralised Educational Development (PRODED) was started in 1978. PRODED seeks to reduce disparities in the provision of elementary education among the various regions of the country through disproportionately higher allocation of resources in favour of the disadvantaged areas and segments of population. Resources are to be provided in the form of direct assistance for purposes such as school buildings, equipment, instructional materials, training and staff development. Since improvement of the school system depends to a considerable extent on the capability of the field staff, PRODED also aims at organisational development and institution building at the regional and the sub-regional levels. An intensive planning exercise was considered

(1) In spite of continuous increase in GNP in the Philippines, poverty has continued to increase. In 1965, 37 per cent lived below the food threshold (poverty line), it increased to 45 per cent in 1971 and to 60 per cent in 1978.

(2) *Manual of Operations for DEDP, op. cit.*

(3) *Report on the Survey of Outcomes of Elementary Education, The Educational Development Projects Implementing Task Force, Ministry of Education and Culture, Manila, 1976.*

necessary to transform the conceptual framework of PRODED into operational projects. Consequently, Decentralised Educational Development Planning Activity (DEDP) was initiated in the beginning of January 1979. The DEDP was to last only a few months and was expected:

- (a) to enable the school districts, divisions and regions to formulate their respective five year plans, 1980-81 to 1984-85;
- (b) to re-orient all participants to the objectives of PRODED; and
- (c) to provide impetus for active participation of sub-regional offices in defining the objectives, priorities and targets of their areas.

By October, 1979, the Ministry of Education and Culture had received plans from six out of thirteen regions, eighty-six out of one hundred and twenty-five divisions and eight hundred and thirty-three out of one thousand eight hundred districts.

It is obviously too early to venture an assessment of these decentralised programmes of educational reform. The reports indicate frantic activity at the regional and sub-regional levels and a much keener understanding of the problem of disparities in provision of educational facilities. The detailed instructions received and the series of workshops organised under the DEPP-DDU and the PRODED-DEDP have facilitated preparation of decentralised plans. However, so far there is little reason to assume that centralised uniformity will give place to decentralised initiatives or that the real needs and difficulties of the poor and the disadvantaged will be reflected in the programmes.

x x x

We have, very briefly, reviewed some experiences of decentralisation of educational administration. Although the educational styles of no two countries are identical, the experiences recounted above have parallels elsewhere (e.g. nuclearisation in Costa Rica, Colombia and other Latin American countries); while the countries and their experiences are vastly different, there are some conspicuous similarities also. The first is that no country has begun a major programme of decentralisation merely to improve an ongoing enterprise. Systematic decentralisation is preceded by decisions to undertake socio-economic or educational reform. Secondly, decentralisation has only a surface value with a strong, often contrary, current of centralisation. Consequently, there is a tendency for decentralisation

exercises to get diluted or modified and the inherent centralist authority re-emerges. A third characteristic of the experiences examined is lack of preparation for decentralisation. This includes lack of adequate administrative structures at the decentralised level, insufficiency of training, continuance of old financial and administrative procedures, etc. And, finally, available experience shows that, to the extent that decentralisation is really effected, devolution of responsibility in planning and implementation of educational programmes (not only reform) imparts vitality to such programmes. In the next section, an attempt is made to examine alternatives among types of decentralisation for the Third World.

IV. DECENTRALISATION ALTERNATIVES

It would be of interest to briefly recall the types of decentralised systems found in Third World countries; and, then, make some concrete proposals regarding steps that may be considered when planning for administrative decentralisation.

1. Types of decentralised structures

Although many countries of the Third World have not ever attempted to systematically decentralise educational administration, there are enough examples on the basis of which it is possible to categorize trends in this respect. Needless to say, this categorization is not exhaustive, nor is it mutually exclusive. Nonetheless, a brief recapitulation of these varieties would facilitate crystallisation of practical suggestions regarding decentralisation.

(1) Decentralisation as a component of a political movement:

In countries where political parties are committed to a just socio-economic order, the task of peoples' participation has been taken up. In such cases, the masses are made aware of their problems and programmes related to those problems are organised. This is being attempted in Guinea-Bissau, Benin, Tanzania, Burma and some other countries. The critical issue is the respective rôles of the party cadres and the people as such - often the two are treated as synonymous and hardly any initiative is left with the people.

(2) Decentralisation through institutional innovation

In this category are those countries which establish participatory institutions, either through the political party, as in the case of Senegal and Nicaragua, or through the administrative machinery, as is the case in India and Sri Lanka. In this arrangement there is always the danger of the special institutions created for decentralisation (cooperatives in Senegal, panchayat institutions in India) being coopted by the administrative machinery, or being left without sufficient resources or responsibilities.

(3) Decentralisation by decree

This is perhaps the commonest form; it would apply to The Philippines, Peru, Nepal, Bangladesh, Ecuador, etc. Decentralisation in such cases is initiated, regulated, and its precise scope delimited by an authoritarian and centralist government. Although some important examples of far-reaching educational reforms can be found in the countries covered by this category, decentralisation itself may be more apparent than real.

(4) Decentralisation based on the State apparatus

Systematic delegation of authority to local echelons may be made as part of general administrative reform, or due to the exigency of a particular project. In the former category is the case of Lebanon, and in the latter the cases of Indonesia (Anjatan Project) and Thailand (World Bank Project for Nonformal Education). The difficulty experienced in this case is that administrative personnel habitually look to the superior authority and seldom themselves face up to the new tasks. Proper selection procedures, training and encouragement to take and discharge responsibility can make a difference.

2. Possible Steps towards Decentralisation

While, as we have asserted earlier, no common programme or pattern of decentralisation can be indicated for all countries of the Third World, there are certain common aspects which may be kept in view while planning for re-organisation or strengthening of educational administration.

Integration in the administrative system

Existence of different types of administrative arrangements for fulfilment of the same objectives is not only undesirable from the point of view of administrative efficiency, it may act counter to the fulfilment of national

objectives. From this point of view, it is important that the "administrative fulcrum" be identified, particularly at the local level, and the ad hoc structures created for any project be supportive of the fulcrum. For example, the central/provisional government must decide whether the *panchayat* institutions in India (also in Nepal) are the ones around which development administration is to be built; if so, the traditional administrative apparatus, which has remained practically unchanged since the days of the *raj*, ought to be made subservient to it, or at least supportive. Similar examples can be cited for several other countries of the Third World.

Adequacy of administrative structures

As we have noted earlier in this paper, educational administration in most developing countries has not grown - that is not to say that it has not expanded, but it is unequal to the complexity and enormity of the task with which it is faced. The result is that even routine managerial tasks are not done and administration begins to be seen by teachers and educational establishments as an impediment to progress. Every developing country has to establish its own norms as regards adequacy, but international organisations (e.g. the International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development or Latin American Centre in Administration for Development) could assist in developing suitable methodologies of diagnosis and criteria for determining adequacy. Another aspect of adequacy, and something that has a very direct bearing on decentralisation, is training and reorientation of educational administrators.

Procedural review

One of the obvious things, but which often gets overlooked, is clear delineation of responsibilities. Procedures and mechanisms for monitoring, supervision and control need to be clearly spelt out - not only in respect of the local level authorities vis-à-vis those they have to supervise, but even more important, the manner in which the central-provincial authority would oversee, and control where necessary, the exercise of decentralised responsibility. Another aspect is procedures for evaluation of base-line workers and of pupils in educational establishments. The review should also include financial, accounting and audit procedures where lack of

clarity and cumbersomeness can cause terrible damage to the initiative and drive of field level administration functionaries(1).

Mechanisms for securing financial support from the people

One of the objectives of decentralisation in practically all countries is the need to secure a popular contribution to education - in terms of money, services, materials. While there is enormous scope for securing such a contribution, what is actually achieved is comparatively limited. Popular interest in education is only really stimulated by genuine involvement in it, but even where people's involvement in education is insufficient, their interest in it may be tapped to improve educational facilities. Depending on the priorities and needs, each country must develop their own methods in this regard(2). It should, however, be emphasized that the desirability of securing a local contribution should not become an alibi for the central authority's neglect of mass education, i.e. primary education for children or adult education. There should be what Crispin calls a "key-sector concept" of support for main education programmes by the central authority(3). For example, the essential minimum requirements for buildings and equipment should be a "key-sector" responsibility of the central authority. As an example of the dangers of excessive dependence on local contributions, we may cite the case of Nepal, where the 1979 decree placed responsibility for raising resources on the *panchayats*. As a recent study has shown, this can become a means for general neglect of primary education facilities, and areas whose capacity to raise resources is poor suffer much more(4).

-
- (1) For a detailed discussion in this respect, see Crispin, A., *Relationships between Central and Local Authorities with respect to Budgetary Control of Educational Expenditures in Decentralised Administrative Situations*, International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1979.
 - (2) Significant experiences in this sphere have been compiled in *Eleven Experiences in Innovations in Decentralisation of Educational Administration and Management of Local Resources*, edited by Yannakopoulos, P.Z., Unesco, 1980.
 - (3) Crispin, A., *op. cit.*, p. 12.
 - (4) Wheeler, A.C.R., et al, *The Role of Supervision in Improving the Teaching/Learning Process in Nepal*, Paris, International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980.

Institutional autonomy

While the Anglo-Saxon concept of university autonomy may not be suitable (or acceptable) in most developing countries, there are obviously certain functions which must be left to the administration of educational institutions - be they school, college or university. In many ways, this is the critical level of decentralisation, about which there need be little controversy. Within the limitations of the level of the institution, its administrative capability and social expectations, it should be possible to spell out a great deal more clearly than is generally the case, the extent of autonomy that an institution (and within the institution a department or an individual teacher) may enjoy.

III. REGIONALISATION

REGIONALISATION OF EDUCATION:
LESSONS FROM SOME EXPERIENCES OF LATIN AMERICA

by J.B. Bernal
ICASE, Panama

Introduction

The work which follows is intended as a contribution to reflection on regionalisation of education, a task to which many countries in Latin America have devoted considerable resources in order to improve education and adapt it to the social and geographical situation of their populations.

Although for some decades attention has been paid to and initiatives taken as regards educational microplanning in the region, it is only in the last few years that a more marked activity has been observed in this area as part of educational reforms which have had a more systematic character and better methodological and theoretical instruments. The experience gained by educational systems has been varied as regards state of maturity and specific objectives proposed. In some cases when important advances have been made, part of the dynamism and benefits have been lost due to limitations imposed by the political and social milieu. It is not hoped here to carry out a comparative analysis of these initiatives and even less an evaluation of the same. Our fundamental interest is to outline some aspects of the matter based on experience at ICASE.

Some Characteristics of Educational Reorganisation
in Latin America

A movement of considerable importance in the last few years within the region has been that directed at encouraging educational development programmes at regional and local levels. This interest appears to be linked with the preoccupation of political and technical sectors at national and international levels with problems of integrated development, that is to say, development centred more on man than on increasing economic indices.

Within this concept, education is assigned an important role as a contributory factor in diminishing social and territorial inequalities. Part of this interest can also be explained by social movements to give more vigorous life to regions and localities.

In this perspective sectors of Ministries of Education for planning, educational administration and curriculum, have developed some elements of regionalisation to decentralise decisions, deconcentrate functions, and give more weight to regional cultures and to the adequacy of teaching-learning for distinct regions.

Many initiatives are being taken in this direction at the present time in Latin America, with varied objectives and degrees of progress. A very diverse gamut of programmes can be found under the term educational regionalisation. Among them there are experiences like nuclearisation, the school map, planning at base level and regional planning proper. Each of them has characteristics proper to themselves by reason of the legal, political, economic and social contexts of the countries in which they are carried out.

From the methodological point of view, these experiences are basically characterised by the extent of focus (regional and local), new objectives pursued at this level (participation, rationalisation, inter-sectoral co-operation, etc.), techniques employed (participative, dynamic) and their conception at least in their technical formulation as micro-planning actions. This has led to their being distinguished from, and very often opposed to, the more global process of national projections called macro-planning. However, if micro-planning is destined as a means to permit integrated development at regional and local levels in conjunction with global national development, it is reasonable to think that both approaches, far from being opposed, complement and mutually enrich each other.

These modalities of microplanning have received much support from international organisations like Unesco and OAS, who have initiated studies, given technical collaboration and encouraged the interchange of experience between countries and projects, within the technical collaboration agreements of countries of the region. Of particular note is the support given by Unesco to work on basic educational needs under the project RED(1)

(1) See "Necesidades educativas básicas de la población rural del área centroamericana". Informe de actividades. Guatemala, 1978. ("Basic educational needs of the rural population in Central America". Report of activities.)

in Central America and Panama, the participation of OREALC in studies on administrative decentralisation(1), the elaboration of methodologies for planning education in rural areas(2), and the IIEP's dissemination of school map methodology(3).

As concerns the OAS, the multi-national project on educational regionalisation integrates the efforts of seven countries, the Central American Institute of Administration and Supervision of Education (ICASE) participating as technical director(4). This programme is managed by giving technical assistance services, formulating and criticising the studies and research on this subject carried out by means of multinational projects and coordinating activities or national projects in such a way that they mutually profit from all the work being done(5).

ICASE and its experience of microplanning of education

Within the Central American area, ICASE represents a means of analysis, discussion and support for initiatives taken by countries in the fields of administration, planning, supervision, curriculum, to modernise and transform educational systems.

In the eleven years since its creation(1), this Institute has diversified and consolidated its lines of action and areas of work. At the moment its programmes cover four areas, that is, teaching to qualify functionaries

-
- (1) See OREALC, la serie de Estudios sobre Descentralización de la Administración Educacional en América Latina y el Caribe. (Series of studies on decentralisation of educational administration in Latin America and the Caribbean.)
 - (2) See Unesco/OREALC - Metodología de Planificación de la Educación para el Desarrollo Integrado de Zonas Rurales. En Boletín de Educación, Santiago de Chile, No. 23-24, 1978. (Methodology of Educational Planning for Integrated Development of Rural Zones. Bulletin of Education.)
 - (3) See Hallak, J., "The School Map. An instrument of educational policy", Paris, Unesco-IIEP, 1978.
 - (4) See ICASE-OEA, Regionalización Educativa. Informe de la Primera Reunión del Proyecto Multinacional de Regionalización Educativa, Panamá, Ciudad Universitaria, febrero, 1980. (Educational Regionalisation, Report of First Meeting of the Multinational Project.)
 - (5) ICASE-OEA, *op. cit.*, p. 58.
 - (6) ICASE was created in 1968 by the decision of 6 countries of Central America and functions as part of the University of Panama, Republic of Panama.

in the fields of their specialisation; research as a complement to teaching and a means to carry out studies linked to programmes; technical collaboration as a means to extend support to educational organisations in those areas in which it is demanded; publications to communicate experience, scientific problems and the results of the work of the institution.

At this moment, ICASE is offering direct technical collaboration to two projects of educational regionalisation: *Nicoya* in Costa Rica and the central provinces in Panama, based on a methodological model produced from accumulated experience gained from the following:

- (a) Socio-economic and educational studies in areas and specific communities, as part of training courses for educational administrators(1), which has permitted elaboration and testing of designs and diagnostic research instruments, as well as programming at base level.
- (b) Institutional analysis directed at the study of the structure and functioning of the school in its administrative, curricular and physical-social dimensions(2).
- (c) Study and proposals for administrative decentralisation of a regional unit of education(3).
- (d) Community-school programmes destined to study, design and promote mechanisms to facilitate adequate integration of the school in its community(4).
- (e) Curricular design at the base level; a methodology to permit integration of community reality and educational

-
- (1) Methodologies and results of these studies can be seen at ICASE. Socio-economic and educational diagnostic of La Chorrera 1973, San Miguelito 1974, Penonome 1975, Caimito 1975, Chilibre 1977, Rio de Jesus 1975, Panama ICASE.
 - (2) See the particular studies of the Professional and Technical School of La Chorrera 1973, Basic Cycle of Chilibre 1977, School of Chemistry, University of Panama 1978, Panama ICASE. Structure and functioning of the Regional University Centres of the Central Region, Panama 1980.
 - (3) See ICASE-Ministry of Education. Proposal for Decentralised Unit of Herrera-Los Santos, Panama, ICASE, 1972.
 - (4) See Bulletins Community-School, which since 1977 are published periodically by ICASE.

Table 1. Some characteristics of experience of regionalisation of the Multinational Project of Educational Regionalisation-
by country. February 1980

Aspects considered	Countries						
	Costa Rica	Chile	El Salvador	Ecuador	Honduras	Nicaragua	Panama Mexico(1)
<u>1. Objectives proposed</u>							
To introduce reforms in the content and role of education	X				X	X	
To facilitate popular participation	X	X	X	X		X	X
To increase the offer of education (democratisation)	X		X		X	X	X
To develop planning and microplanning	X		X				X
Improve administrative coordination at the national, regional and local levels							
Rationalise use of national and local resources	X	X				X	X
Deconcentrate the administrative system	X	X					X
Decentralise the administrative system		X	X	X		X	X
Encourage intersectoral relations		X			X	X	X
Consolidate revolutionary policy						X	
<u>2. Areas in which regionalisation is to be achieved</u>							
Administration	X	X	X			X	X
Planning	X				X		X
Curriculum	X				X	X	X
Training and qualifying of teachers	X	X	X	X			
Coverage of the programme:							
- national regionalisation	X(7R)	X(12 1R)	X(10Z)			X(8R)	
- particular regions	X(E.P.)	X(F.P.)	X(E.P.)	X	X		X(E.P.)
<u>3. Actions proposed in the short term</u>							
Diagnosis and studies	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Qualifying of human resources	X	X	X	X		X	X
Design of proposals	X	X	X			X	X

(1) This country is not at the moment integrated in the project. It participates as a specific invitee given the interest shown by the office represented (General Direction of Education of the State of Mexico) in the theme of the seminar.

Source: ICASE/OAS - Educational Regionalisation. Report of the First Meeting of the Multinational Project of Educational Regionalisation. Panama, University Campus. February 1980.
R - Regions; Z - Zones; E.P. - Pilot Projects.

institutions as a source of programming didactical units(1).

- (f) System of permanent training for supervisors and serving school heads, based on the distance-learning method which operates by self-learning groups at the zone or school district level(2).

Concluding Reflections

The tendency observed in the last few years in some educational systems of Latin America to give greater importance to educational development actions stemming from and directed at the social base, is a phenomenon which with every passing year becomes more prominent in strategies of educational change in these countries. This movement is linked to orienting the educational process towards the satisfaction of the educational needs of the population, according to social and geographical differences, and was begun, perhaps, as a response to limitations observed in the application of the centralist planning and lineal expansion models current at the time.

The adoption of this modality of planning implies changes to the planning and administrative apparatus of educational systems because of the necessity to meet new demands and carry out educational activities for other sectors working towards local and regional development. These changes can be seen in the political, functional and territorial spheres.

-
- (1) Lucarelli, Elisa et al. The Community and the Educational Institution as source of the curriculum. A methodology for the programming of didactical units. Panama, ICASE, 1977.
 - (2) Lucarelli, E. and Diaz, J., SICAPER, an experience of distance training of serving educational administrators. Panama, ICASE 1979. Also Castellero, H. and Diaz, J. Evaluation and Participation in an experiment on distance education, Panama 1979.

Editor's Note: A summary of the methodology for regional educational planning was given in this paper, but for the purposes of publication this had to be deleted. For those who may be interested, a more detailed and analytical presentation of the methodology is contained in Roggi, Luis et al. *Hacia una metodología de la planificación regional de la educación (On a methodology of regional educational planning)*, Panama, ICASE 1979.

Political

Regionalisation of education assumes greater access of base groups to educational decisions which affect objectives, content, administration and resources destined for teaching. This phenomenon, known as decentralisation, can mean a loss of political power and omnipresence in decision-taking for central political authorities in matters such as, for example, the number of staff and budget which are the subject of much concern for the functioning of small schools in the far corners of the country. Given the dependent character of education vis-à-vis the political and economic power structure, this process of educational democratisation could be difficult, particularly so in a social and political regime which does not favour participation.

Another side of the problem seems to be the degree of decentralisation of decision-taking which national unity can tolerate, that is to say, up to which point can regional or local initiatives be permitted without affecting state integrity. The response, which is not easy, may be found in the elaboration of educational regionalisation policies and the nature of each state. A greater security is felt when regionalisation covers the whole of the country by means of a national system of regions formulated and controlled at the centre, as in the case of Costa Rica and Peru. Initiatives which arise from or are directed by particular regions and communities can be more difficult, because of lack of a national framework to which to make reference. In these cases the elaboration of regional policies which fit national policies, demands a considerable effort of analysis and at making the two different sources compatible. The case of Nicoya gives a methodological example for such situations. It is considered that⁽¹⁾ within the relations between national and regional policy, the necessary compatibility may be established between state action and the diversity needed to ensure that initiatives and regional particularities are not ignored in state activities and the integrated planning process.

The political dimension is also reflected in the groups which should participate and the form which this takes. There is the problem of knowing in whose hands decisions at regional and local level should be placed and if this does not reproduce on a smaller scale the structure which exists at national level, decisions may fall under the dominion of a few persons in the educational sphere, making those who are already marginal increasingly so.

(1) Roggi, L. et. al., *op. cit.*, p. 6.

As regards the form of participation, what type of organisation should be adopted? It seems that it should correspond to the character of the state and type of society, rather than be transposed from other contexts. In this connection, the greater the value given to individual cultures and autochthonic forms of organisation, the more they can contribute to finding, within the particular country and region, mechanisms to promote participation in and support to educational processes. Several forms of educational co-management and auto-management have been tried out with success in some countries, principally in communities with educational nuclei.

Another element frequently underestimated is that of the teaching staff and its rôle in the formulation of educational change and in the promotion of participation. In what way can teachers participate in educational reforms within their own areas? In which areas and at what moment during the process can this be done? The teaching staff is a key element in whatever process of educational change is to take place and the understanding and adaptability that they show in this process depend, in large part, on the objectives proposed. A case which should be studied is that of the teachers of Panama and their attitude to the educational reform which proposed to implement programmes to improve marginal areas and sectors(1). As to the form of participation of teachers in these decisions, a variety of formulas have been proposed and tried in different countries. In the experience of ICASE, the most striking feature was the way teachers were included in decision-making and technical operations of programming (frequently the exclusive domain of researchers, planners and professional administrators) with successful results.

The participation of teachers also appears to be an important factor in promoting democratic practices in students and community groups. A democratic climate in the school is probably the best method for spreading such practices. As regards the people of the community and region, offering support to base populations in the form of organisation, conscientisation as to educational problems and ways of solving them, is a strategy which has been tried and accepted in certain countries, but it

(1) The Panamanian educational reform was repealed on 22 October 1979 by Executive Decree, after 60 days of strikes by teachers and professors of private and state schools.

evidently depends on the school's scope for action in working with the population. In any case, this requires adequate knowledge of the social and political environment, as well as a favourable attitude on the part of teachers to changes which it is desired to introduce.

The coordination of educational programmes with other sectors, is another objective frequently assigned to projects of educational regionalisation and this also presents some political problems. The advantages of work in this direction have a firm basis, but results observed in practice, for the most part, are far from those originally forecast. One of the reasons which may explain this is the political and methodological limitations to integrating at the central level those programmes of the different sectors which have an influence at regional and local levels. Experiences of integrating educational plans with development programmes, reveal that interest in aspects such as supply and demand for school places, financing and school budgeting, have had a higher priority than those related to objectives of training and the relevant actions necessary for such training.

If at the national level, conditions for communication and intersectoral work are not adequate, it would appear difficult to obtain such cooperation at lower levels where the motivation of subordinate agencies is directed by norms which emanate from above. Nevertheless, even with these limitations, it is a goal which should be encouraged, especially in view of the fact that the regional and sub-regional levels offer the best opportunities to carry out integration of different sectors, due to their smaller territorial area, possibilities of direct communication, etc., within the area in which concrete operations of plans have to be carried out. Which sectors should participate? How are decisions of intersectoral programming taken? What role should local communities have in the programmes? These are questions which have to be answered in each country and to which more study should be dedicated.

Functional aspect

The problem of decentralisation of decisions includes another aspect, i.e. what functions among those traditionally carried out at the central level should be delegated or shared with sub-national and school administrative units, because of the new responsibilities that the latter must assume in the development of programmes. Such a delegation is generally known as

deconcentration and is linked to any decentralisation of planning to the regions.

Administrative deconcentration is directed more to the definition of tasks and spheres of competence where lower educational authorities can exercise certain functions according to the area (type and level of teaching, building, budget proposals, etc.) and territorial space (region, province, community), always under lineal central authority, which thus presupposes no real transfer of power. This process of delegation of new functions, in the opinion of some specialists and those responsible for political decisions, can be a first step in the direction of "granting" a higher level of participation to regions and communities, particularly when the latter have no previous experience in this field.

In the functional sphere, for the purposes of educational regionalisation, a series of questions have to be asked as to the functions which in terms of planning, administration (of human resources, as well as financial and physical) and curriculum (planning and supervision) can be entrusted to the hands of local groups and authorities. In this direction it is important to consider the rôles which non-school institutions and community organisations can fulfill in the operationalisation of new functions. For example, how can they take part in the elaboration and development of teaching units, inter-agency cooperation, encouraging diversification of programmes to better meet the educational needs of different groups of the population? From the operational point of view, a critical factor is that of the coordination of diverse administrative units at the institutional, local regional and national levels in such a way as to avoid administrative anarchy and the creation of educational islands in the national context. What type of organisation should be adopted to make the process of educational improvement and change at the base of the social system, agile, flexible and rational?

A possible answer, which is much encouraging, is the creation of coordination units placed at the capitals of regions, provinces and/or educational zones. One of the major risks in these cases is the reproduction of national structures at lower levels in order to achieve different functions and tasks, thus tending to perpetuate the centralist and bureaucratic model, duplicate efforts and increase educational costs.

Territorial aspect

The definition of the area in which regional policies for education can be formulated and applied, presents some difficulties of a conceptual, methodological and political character. The difficulties in designing educational regionalisation projects, and initiatives like nuclearisation, school maps, etc., which are carried out in different sizes of geographical areas, (i.e. small communities, districts or larger areas like provinces, departments or regions) have been indicated. This necessitates attempting a more precise definition of the character of these experiences and elaborating the most favourable size of area. However, not all the difficulties lie in this sphere. The same term "region" can have different meanings originating from the objectives of the fields of study proper to them. Thus we have natural or geographic regions, polarised regions, political-administrative regions and development or planning regions. For this reason, it is not always desirable to use the term region, for components and functions vary significantly from one type of region to another.

The organisation of educational services has in the past taken place according to defined spatial distributions having political-administrative objectives, in which local sentiment and real political authority have been rooted. However, for the most part such a distribution does not represent an integrated social, economic and geographic space. In many countries at the present time, this distribution is considered as being poorly suited to planning to meet new goals of development. In its place, planning units have elaborated new regions conforming to national development strategies, which have served as a framework of action for all sectors, among them education. It appears that, in practice, it is not always possible to obtain harmonisation of interests and unity of motivation of all sectors for work within a strategy of this nature, but in the case of the educational sector, it can be seen that it has sometimes maintained its old spatial organisation or adopted another which does not necessarily coincide with the national strategy for regional development, thus reducing possibilities of intersectoral integration of programmes in pursuit of common objectives. One may attribute this disjunction, among other reasons, to the problem of defining areas or regions according to the objectives they are to achieve. Unfortunately, education has made little advance in the theory of regional development, a field which up to now has been a major preoccupation for geographers and economists.

What area should be selected for the regional planning of education? With what objectives? What criteria and techniques should be utilised? These are some of the principal questions that may be asked. In this respect Delprat has indicated that "regional development organisation is determined as a function of a certain number of criteria: geographical, demographic, economic, social, whose value depends on the *general objectives* of planning and development as well as on political choice in the broad sense of the term and which is devolved by those responsible to the authorities of the country"(1).

An adequate analysis of the problem and of the objectives to be achieved in the regional plan, is a primordial task for the territorial educational organisation. It is probable that the results would not be the same at the end of a diagnosis if the problem set of expansion of schooling according to possibilities of supply, instead of the problem of social inequalities vis-à-vis education and the necessity to respond to educational demands which had not been met before. In the first case, perhaps at the moment of planning the objective would centre on increasing enrolment in the direction of the existing educational model and organisation. In the second case, emphasis on equality would orient efforts to educational development favouring reduction of educational inequalities and respecting regional particularities within the national educational policy(2). Parallel with this a better coordination could be organised with those sectors which could make a contribution to overcoming the economic and social problems underlying the educational inequalities between and with regions. This has a particular significance for countries like those in Central America where approximately 60% of the population is rural and educational deficiencies are considerable.

In this context, the identification of intra-regional differences becomes an important aspect in the diagnosis and plan. Within regions, territorial and social differences of education frequently exist which are very often comparable to those found between regions at the national level. The existence in a region of dual structures, like rural/urban, subsistence/capitalist agricultural production, as well as social groups which are not

(1) Delprat, R., *Regionalisation of development, the case of Venezuela*, Paris, IFRED, 1965.

(2) See particularly: Further P., *Regional diversity and reduction of inequalities in the recent development of education*, Paris, IIEP, 1978, pp. 1-6.

integrated into regional and national life, explain internal disequilibria as regards access, continuation within the system and quality of education received by the population of the different communities of the region. The diagnosis would indicate the priorities for programming and the nature of different educational strategies which should be developed. The study of community life(1) is an example of one method which might be used in this direction. It gives an idea of the general set of problems experienced by the people and puts forward elements for a programme of action.

To conclude, it may be said that the analysis of these aspects (political, functional, territorial) can offer a small insight into the great complexity and riches of the process of regional planning. The diversity of the questions formulated here and others which might also be asked, shows the existence of a fertile field for scientific exploration in order to obtain better results from regional planning for educational development.

(1) The method of study of community life, also called *Rapid Diagnosis of the Community* used in Nicoya is an adaptation of the method elaborated by the Economic and Humanism Team of Lyon, France. See Roggi, L. et al., *op. cit.*, pp. 36-41.

IV. THE DEVELOPMENT AREA APPROACH AT THE
LOCAL LEVEL

EDUCATION AND SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT AT LOCAL LEVEL
- AN INTEGRATED APPROACH

by S.N. Saraf
Consultant, IIEP

I. MULTI-LEVEL PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

National policies and strategies, within overall socio-economic objectives and availability of various kinds of resources, have *essentially* and *initially* to be developed at the *macro-level* and in broad terms. The formulation of plans, with specific time-horizons and spatial terms, which take sectoral area development into consideration, can only be done at multi-levels, i.e. national, inter-regional, regional, sub-regional and local levels, if optimum growth with minimum inputs is to be achieved.

Segmental approach - the consequences:

Within multi-level planning, the *micro-level* has largely been neglected so far, especially in the areas of human resource development, minimum needs programmes, employment generation, reduction of poverty, etc., resulting in inequalities and various kinds of social and political tension. The continuing emphasis on growth, postulated at the *macro-level*, without working out its relationships in terms of redistributive justice, has created numerous problems, so that in spite of growth, the number of people below the poverty line and the extent of inequalities has been increasing. In the area of education, it is not difficult to observe the results; e.g. large segments of population untouched by any kind of education, regional imbalances, lop-sided development of education, irrelevant curriculum, etc. Further within the sector of education itself, at the local level, there is often a fragmented approach to planning and development of the different levels, like elementary, secondary, vocational, literacy, etc., which broadly reflect the segmental approach at regional and national levels.

Local-level development - linkages:

The emphasis is on two words: (a) local level, and (b) linkages:

(a) The Local level can be any size of geographical unit depending on the overall size of a given country, its broad geographical contours and its administrative division into states/provinces, regions, districts, village complexes like blocks or development areas and also on the size of population. A viable unit for planning and management of each activity has to be determined by the actual situation. For instance, in India generally a revenue district is also an educational district. But in certain States, it has been found that a revenue district is too big to be managed and therefore one revenue district may have many educational districts.

(b) Linkages depend on the existence of various kinds of developmental infrastructure in a given area. The local area should be manageable in terms of its size and population to enable intimate contact and understanding between three important sets of persons; the planners, the administrators responsible for implementation of the plan and the people who are the active partners and main beneficiaries.

II. EDUCATION AND MICRO-PLANNING

Educational surveys and school mapping

Education, though an important sector of national development impinging on every family and the entire community in one form or the other, has largely been planned and evaluated at the macro-level and, to a marginal extent, administered and managed at the micro-level. An aspect of micro-planning, which has received attention of late, is the carrying out of educational surveys(1) with the following main objectives:

- (a) to identify and enumerate every habitation and prepare registers giving relevant information about them,
- (b) to enumerate the existing schools and habitations covered by them, and,

(1) In India, the First All India Educational Survey was conducted in 1957, since then three more surveys, Second, Third and Fourth Educational Survey have been completed. The extent to which these surveys have been able to achieve their objectives could be an interesting topic for research.

- (c) to plan school areas for each school in a rational manner so as to derive the maximum benefit with minimum additional outlay from existing schools and those to be opened or enlarged in the future.

The need for carrying out such comprehensive surveys was felt because it was observed that there were many areas where, on the one hand, schools were situated so close to one another that they could not attract an adequate number of pupils and, on the other, there were large areas without a single school. The practical form which it has taken so far is that of school mapping: an important technique for micro-planning in the education sector. School mapping, by its connotation is, however, limited to school education and of the formal type which touches only an insignificant portion of the total population.

Education - Centrepiece for Development

In developing countries, the concern for broadening the coverage of planning and management of educational reform at the local level (micro and mini-micro) has been growing. This healthy trend is observed mainly because of the following considerations:

- (a) The need to view education, not in isolation, but within the total social and economic milieu as an important component of basic minimum needs, requiring effective linkages with various developmental sectors.
- (b) The ever-expanding concept of educational action itself which requires, in addition to the existing formal system, the inclusion of functional and non-formal and informal sectors of education, training and learning with implications for new structures, content, methodologies, etc.
- (c) The inability, on the one hand, of the formal educational system alone to provide for operationalization of the concept of equality of educational opportunity, and, on the other, of the existence of means and structures in various developmental sectors to meet the differentiated requirements of specific groups.

- (d) The paramount importance of the involvement of the local community in various phases or pre-planning, planning, management and assimilation of educational reform.

These weighty considerations involve changes in the conceptual framework of educational planning and have operational implications in terms of programming, management, training of personnel, institutional development, monitoring and evaluation at the local level.

Range of development activities at the local level

An indicative list of sectoral development activities in a normal administrative local level area, with which educational activities are closely linked, is generally as under:

- (a) Agriculture and allied services
- (b) Minor and medium-scale irrigation work
- (c) Soil conservation and water management
- (d) Animal husbandry
- (e) Forestry
- (f) Processing of agricultural produce
- (g) Rural electrification projects
- (h) Organising exports
- (i) Cooperatives, credit societies and marketing
- (j) Village and small industries and rural industrialisation programmes
- (k) Local infrastructure, mass media and other publicity agencies
- (l) Labour and employment services
- (m) Social services such as:
 - (i) Education
 - (ii) Health and family planning
 - (iii) Nutrition
 - (iv) Water supply
 - (v) Housing
 - (vi) Social and labour welfare
 - (vii) Vocational and technical training
 - (viii) Roads
 - (ix) Youth activities

(x) Welfare of under-privileged classes

(xi) Rural works programmes

These inputs, at the local level, should reach all the sectors of population and particularly the deprived sectors, who form more than 60 per cent of the population. The utilisation of inputs, in an optimum manner and their creation of further inputs, depends on the development of man through education (including schooling, training and skill formation). This has led to three kinds of major developments as indicated below:

- (a) Incorporation of formal, non-formal and informal educational and training components within the development programmes of different economic and social structures at different levels, though in a modest way. The need is felt to gradually increase this component.
- (b) Launching of integrated development programmes which are either area specific, like Hill and Tribal Development Plans, etc., or programme specific like Small Farmers Development Programmes, etc., with small components for training and dissemination.
- (c) Emphasis on accelerated development of basic minimum needs programmes, covering health, family planning, education, nutrition, water supply, rural housing, rural roads, etc., in the local area so that the poorest benefit from economic development.

The convergence of these programmes, in operational terms, takes place at the area level and in the education sector and both can be benefactor and beneficiary if proper linkages are developed. This is a real challenge in micro-planning.

One important key issue, whether in macro or micro-planning, is the concept of educational action itself. Educational systems tend to be equated with schooling - *firstly* this is a very narrow segmental view and *secondly*, it excludes all consideration of overall policies, methodologies and resources outside the schooling milieu. The formal school sector covers only 20 to 30 per cent of the population and the rest must use the out-of-school non-formal education sector. The current concentration of efforts on formal schooling has resulted in various kinds of inequities; concentration of development in specific geographic areas and centralization of power structures in the hands of elites. Once the wider concept of

education is recognized and accepted, it immediately expands the target group with consequential implications in terms of requirements of teachers, physical facilities, programming of activities, planning and administrative mechanisms, etc.

It is not uncommon that plans to expand the existing limited formal schooling facilities, to improve its efficiency and relevance, and give better management of structures, cannot be fully implemented because of constraints of overall resources in developing countries and the proportion of them allocated to education. It is not that the absolute provision for education and its proportion of total G.N.P. and national budget are not increasing, there has in fact been steady growth as can be seen from the figures given in Table 1.

Table 1. Public Education Expenditure as a Percentage of G.N.P. and National Budget, 1960-74(1)

Regions		Percent of gross national product (GNP)				Percent of national budget			
		1960	1965	1970	1974	1960	1965	1970	1974
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. More Developed regions		4.0	5.2	5.7	5.7	11.3	15.2	16.1	15.6
2. Less Developed regions		2.3	3.0	3.4	3.9	11.7	13.1	13.8	15.1

(1) Source: Education Sector Policy Paper, World Bank, April 1980 (p. 67).

It will be observed that the rate of increase as a percentage of GNP was higher in developing countries. The gap in the percentage of national budget earmarked to education between the developed and developing regions has almost closed. These are world averages and do not reflect the huge variations between countries, but they indicate the efforts that are being made and show present trends. The World Bank's conclusion, with which every educational planner of the developing countries will agree is "that if education systems continue to grow at the present rate and under the same structural and managerial conditions they will require funds that - while far below those allocated to education in developed countries - will be beyond the financial capabilities of many developing countries". In many countries, the limits of both public and private expenditure have been reached. In spite of these increases in expenditure on education, the

gross enrolment ratios of children attending elementary schools are stagnating. In India, for the last six to eight years, the gross enrolment ratios at the elementary stage corresponding to age group 6-14 is hovering around 66 to 68 per cent. This is not likely to rise appreciably in the near future even if new schools are established and additional teachers appointed.

The situation is aggravated because other sectors, within the social services, are competing for funds. This calls for several measures; reducing costs in order to reach larger numbers through optimum utilisation of existing human and physical resources within the formal education sector; redistributing existing educational resources between various sectors with the accent on universal education for children and adults; increased reliance on community-financed education, and, what seems to be more important now, utilisation of the educational resources, (personnel, structures and facilities) of formal, non-formal and informal training given by Departments and agencies, other than Education, at the local level. This is possible only when *educational mapping*, incorporating the availability of resources of all kinds of education, training and skills formation of various developmental sectors, is planned and developed in a scientific manner.

III. EDUCATIONAL INPUTS FROM DEVELOPMENTAL SECTORS

Multi-source funding of education programmes

Many instances can be cited to indicate that Departments, other than Education, have education, training and improvement of skill components, such as rural development, craftsman training, agricultural extension, small scale and handicraft industry, minor irrigation, animal husbandry, tourism, etc. In India, like many other countries, expenditure incurred by Departments, other than Education, on formal, non-formal and informal educational programmes and training has been increasing. This is illustrated by the figures given in Table 2.

The expenditure which several Departments and agencies, at various levels - regional and local levels - incur for non-diploma and non-certificate type training and informal education is quite considerable. These courses and activities need to be identified so that planners and managers of formal education may take cognizance of the vast potential of the unexplored field of education, research, training, etc., outside the Department of Education.

Table 2. Total Budget Provision for Education and Training in India
1976-80 (Revenue Account)

Education							
Year	Edn. Dept.	Other Depts.	Total	Training*	Informal* Education	Grand Total	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1976-77	19 661.1 (86)	2 959.1 (13)	22 620.7 (99)	212.1 (1)	53.1 (neg)	22 884.9 (100)	
1977-78	21 756.0 (85)	3 157.8 (12)	24 913.8 (97)	492.3 (2)	141.9 (1)	25 548.0 (100)	
1978-79	24 775.0 (84)	4 164.7 (14)	28 939.7 (95)	450.2 (2)	207.3 (neg)	29 597.2 (100)	
1979-80	28 248.5 (81)	5 752.1 (16)	34 000.6 (97)	716.9 (2)	273.9 (1)	34 991.4 (100)	
Growth Rt.							
1976-77 to							
1979-80	12.8%	25%	14.6%	50%	70%	15.2%	

(Figures within parentheses indicate percentage)

*This includes expenditure on training and informal educational activities which lead to the award of an academic diploma or certificate which improves educational qualifications. It does not include expenditure incurred by the Departments on in-service and pre-service training courses and other kinds of training activities to improve the professional competence of the staff.

Identification of agencies supporting educational
activities

To give one concrete instance, the Directorate of Adult Education of the Ministry of Education in India identified 65 programmes of other Ministries and Departments having formal and non-formal education and training components which could be used for promoting literacy work among various target groups without incurring any major additional expenditure within the Education Department. Several studies(1) have indicated, especially in

- (1) For instance, the Social Work and Research Centre, Tilonia, Ajmer district, Rajasthan, in a "Study of the unused and underutilised educational resources of Silora Block", Ajmer district, Rajasthan (India) indentified human resources (institutional and non-institutional) in large numbers which, if properly planned, intensively utilised and managed systematically could, with some marginal inputs, change the educational and also .../..

developing countries, that while infrastructural facilities for education and training sponsored by various agencies, are available, these sometimes remain unutilised or underutilised. If they could be used by the education sector, this would lead to considerable economy in financial expenditure and be a direct input to development of the area.

The interdependence of educational sub-systems and structures within a micro-area should become a primary objective. For instance, if vocational education is to be introduced, the availability of a technical and professional institution, an industrial estate, an agricultural extension centre, factories and experimental farms in the immediate vicinity and also access to their facilities will be a positive factor in the implementation of this programme. There are more than 6,000 institutions or centres imparting vocational and technical education or training in India outside the university system, appropriate to post-elementary and post-secondary education. These include polytechnics, industrial training institutes, junior technical, crafts and handicrafts, industrial and technical, agricultural, forestry and veterinary and animal husbandry schools, nursing, auxiliary nursing, midwives and health visitors' schools, pharmacy and other para-medical schools, commercial training schools, institutions for village level officials, fishery, drawing, painting, etc. schools. Besides these recognized educational and training institutions, there are three other types of systems represented by the apprenticeship training scheme, non-formal training centres under the direct control of Central Ministries, Public Sector undertakings and the State Governments and their agencies. As regards the apprenticeship training scheme, there were over 5,400 establishments which trained apprentices for 61 designated trades. Total enrolment in purely vocational and technical institutions exceeds 400,000. All these are formal and full-time institutions and courses. Short courses and technical modules, if prepared with care and operated in a non-formal manner, could cover the needs of a larger proportion of adolescents and youth at the local level provided planning and delivery systems are appropriate and systematic.

(.../..)

socio-economic status of this block. The average population of a block in India is about 130,000 and there are 5,001 blocks in 400 districts of 22 states and 9 union territories. The average population of a district is about 1.6 million - a perfectly viable unit for micro-planning and development.

Academic recognition of non-formal programmes

Closely connected with this issue is how to effect changes in the non-formal programmes of various developmental agencies and non-governmental organizations so that they are attractive and of direct and immediate benefit to larger numbers. In many local areas these are practically the only channels of education for the masses - but are languishing for want of academic and professional support. J.P. Naik's(1) solution to this problem was:

"... our efforts will have to be developed on three main fronts. The first is to give them an adequate status and official support so that they gain in prestige and come to be regarded as at least equal to the modern forms of non-formal education. The second is to give them full academic support: this will be possible only if academics begin to study them and take interest in them in large numbers. The third is to develop them as powerful instruments of modernization and development: this will be possible if their content is radically transformed by including modern science and an appropriate social philosophy of development. If these efforts are made, we shall be taking steps to modernize the entire society instead of concentrating our efforts, as we have done so far, on modernizing the elites only."

While decisions in regard to these policy matters will have to be taken at the national and regional levels, implementation can best be done at the local level. In fact, there have been many instances where policies have been announced, but their implementation has been inadequate because coordination, planning mechanisms and administrative instruments are not worked out in detail at the local level.

Area Development Projects

This type of integrated project has been started in several countries(2). Some of them have components of formal, non-formal and informal education

- (1) Naik, J.P., *Interaction of Formal and Non-Formal Education*, Commonwealth Conference on Non-Formal Education for Development, July, 1979. Commonwealth Secretariat, Marlborough House, London, p. 5.
- (2) In Pakistan, EPPIERD (Experimental Pilot Project for integrating Education in Rural Development) is being implemented in 21 villages. The objectives of the Project are to test the effectiveness of a new strategy for rural development and to design a built-in system of formative evaluation capable of providing continuous feedback on the field activities of the project. It is proposed to achieve this by integrating particular groups of population into the development .../..

and training catering to the needs of their target groups. Case studies(1) of several such projects indicate the success or partial success of such innovative programmes. These studies have, among other things, noted in a general sense, the positive relationship between education and development. Of further interest are the country dossiers on several innovative educational projects related to some aspects of socio-economic development, published by Unesco(2) and other agencies. To what extent these relationships can be identified and optimally utilized and whether effective two-way links can be developed with the education sector are matters of actual study and research.

Building educational components within Department Projects

Microplanning of education would also locate many area- or problem-specific projects, where the accent is largely on improving physical infrastructures and providing financial inputs related to economic development with

(.../...)

process, increasing the enrolment of boys and girls in remote areas and building up strong local community organizations for the purpose. The project is trying to evolve a more relevant curriculum and set of instructional materials and to test new modalities of participation of people so as to obtain their cooperation horizontally and vertically.

In Tanzania, the major aim of the "Integrated Area Development Planning Reform" is to institutionalise an area-based planning system with in-built participation through the creation of a unified and effective system of coordination and control at regional and district levels.

In Ethiopia, peasants associations are a new form of organization of the people living in rural areas, which is responsible for development of various kinds of co-operatives and creation of different infrastructures around them.

In India, Integrated Rural Development Projects are being implemented in many areas. These have now taken the form of area planning and development of a block with the main focus on generation of employment, removal of poverty and integration of various economic and social services.

- (1) One such systematic compilation may be seen in World Bank Publication: *Attacking Rural Poverty - How Non-Formal Education Can Help*, by Philip H. Coombs with Manzoor Ahmed, 1974.
- (2) Basic Services for Children: *A Continuing Search for Learning Priorities*. Unesco-Unicef Cooperative Programme: Experiments and Innovations in Education, International Bureau of Education, Paris, Unesco, 1978, Volumes I and II.

very little in the way of education and training. As a result of this identification, and assessment of the educational needs of the target groups concerned, the project authorities could be encouraged to build in the necessary components within the project programmes and funds. The Education Department could provide professional assistance for the preparation of learning materials, supervision, training and other appropriate pedagogical inputs. Thus it would meet a combination of economic and educational needs.

Link-up between employers and educational institutions

There is also an urgent need for some sort of link-up, at the local or micro-level, between the supply of and demand for educated, trained and skilled personnel for on-going and emerging developmental activities. Both these variables are not static, and part of the problem lies in the difficulty of accurately forecasting requirements for specific skills in the economy. For this and other reasons, the suggestion has been made that full-time pre-employment vocational training should, of necessity, impart general skills. This would imply closer collaboration between the suppliers and consumers of educational products - the education department, other development agencies/departments and the organized and unorganized sectors of the economy. Planning of these kinds of linkages at present is, by and large, non-existent. The consequences have been grave. If more attention could be paid to increasing the involvement of employers and the quality of relationships between educational institutions and employers, chances of operating educational establishments effectively would be improved. While at the macro level, the existing loose-fit between supply and demand is sometimes an academic matter, i.e. a subject for long-term studies and research, it assumes serious dimensions at the local level because the consequences create different kinds of imbalances. Educational planning and development at the local level geared broadly to area and regional economic and social plans, would bring out the need to establish links between educational programmes and the "emerging" and "developing" economic and technological profile of the micro-area. This would also serve as feedback to economic and social planners for the planning and development of productive employment opportunities in the limited organized sector on a long-term basis, and also in the large unorganized sector it could stimulate self-employment through various kinds of inputs. In highly populated developing economies, lack

of productive employment opportunities is one of the causes of poverty. The informal and unorganized sector can provide the setting for the formation of skills in which on-the-job training may be incorporated. At the local level, such opportunities do exist and need to be identified and tied up with the characteristics of the eligible population. This is a task requiring linkages between the various development sectors themselves and with education.

International agencies' support for integrated projects

There is growing interest among international agencies, (which is a reflection of national requirements), in supporting various forms of training. Among these three can be enumerated: general pre-employment training for the labour market at all levels in education projects, project-specific training and area-specific training mostly in urban or rural development projects including the informal sector. The focus is on different kinds of clientele at the local level. At the same time, national level interest in developing the formal, non-formal and informal sectors of education and training through various development departments is growing. One concrete instance is that of India as reflected in Table 2. Likewise, at the international level, to give an example, the World Bank is channelling its lending in three principal ways: (a) through direct loans to the education sector for expansion and qualitative improvement of education and training, (b) through loans to sectors like power and transport, etc. which include components supporting training (project-related training), and (c) through loans to integrated projects spread over several sectors for urban and rural development which include "education components".

Though it is proposed to increase lending to the education sector, there will be an even more considerable increase in the area of project-related components of training and education in urban and rural development projects. This is the result of realization that other development sectors, apart from education, also have a significant contribution to make to human resource development. It would be encouraging if a similar trend were observed in the plans of developing countries.

The "splendid isolation" of the Education Department in the delivery of educational goods, through its own formal institutions and programmes should be ended the earlier the better. Formal education alone is not the answer to the huge problem of human resource development. There are

other development sectors with education and training components that are not recognized or encouraged. Multi-source funding and multi-departmental operation of educational and training activities have the best chance of success if local level collaboration is effective.

IV. EDUCATION AND MINIMUM NEEDS - RELATIONSHIPS

Basic education and minimum needs

These concepts are being seriously discussed and incorporated in plans and projects because of the failure of existing national and international development strategies to solve the problems of the poor, i.e. of the majority. Though education as a whole should be a component of the basic needs package along with health, nutrition, housing, water supply, etc., in some countries it is limited to primary education and also in certain cases to adult literacy. But whether education as a whole, or some of its segments are included in the basic needs programme is not the major problem for a micro planner, the real challenge is how to integrate the various components. Education programmes have been included in development plans but firstly the priority given was not high and secondly, which is more important, the linkages of and relationships between the various components were either absent or not defined. The interdependence of location of primary schools with the construction of feeder roads, the effect of improved health care on participation and increased performance in schools, and fostering community organizations to help in the spread of literacy and adult education is not given serious consideration either in planning or development. Many instances can be given to show that the fulfilment of any one of the components of basic needs can be beneficial to other components and conversely also that the lack of any one has adverse effects on attempts to meet any of the others. A study of such inter-linkages, interdependence, and interrelationships, which have been neglected so far, has important policy implications, especially in the design of an effective basic needs services delivery programme at the micro-level. This is so because there are important linkages in both the output and input sides of providing goods and services to meet basic needs.

While the linkages between outputs of basic minimum needs at the local level are clear enough, the systems of inputs and delivery are neither clear nor simple, involving complementary administrative, economic and technical activities. Even though the goods and services in the area of basic

minimum needs are all provided by the public sector (in a large number of developing countries this is by and large the position), important administrative, economic and technical linkages must be organized. Coordinative aspects of educational activities in relation to (a) other development sectors in general and (b) educational components of these development sectors especially at the grass roots level, in order to meet the total learning needs of the community need to be examined. This again is an area of great concern for educational microplanning and, therefore, worth exploring.

One concrete instance in India is that of the Integrated Project of Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy Project begun in 1966-67, where three agencies, namely the Ministries of Agriculture (in charge of farmers' training), Education (in charge of functional literacy) and Information (in charge of farm broadcasting) collaborated at the national, regional and local levels. There was sufficient collaboration at the national level but such was not generally the case at the regional and local levels. But wherever, at the local level, collaboration was established in terms of planning and management, it was very effective. Several evaluation studies made this point. Coordination bottlenecks in the project are described in one of the studies(1) of the author.:

V. CONCLUSION

Political will and inter-sectoral linkages

Strong political will, is no doubt essential to forge inter-sectoral linkages. It has, however, to be backed up by a sound policy statement defining as simply as possible the inputs needed from each sector and where feasible, leave these to the separate sectors to implement. An agreed inter-sectoral strategy, at the national level, is the basis for operationalization at regional and local levels. Such linkages could become a reality if centralized national bureaucracies could be more responsive to the needs and priorities of local communities by fully supporting and strengthening the local institutional resources of intended beneficiaries. Further, it seems important that the chief administrator, at the local level, must have control over the budget and personnel and be supported by key level functionaries.

(1) SARAF, S.N. *Functional Literacy Project of India 1968-1979 - A Decade of Evaluation - Procedures, Problems and Prospect.*, Paris, I.I.E.P., Unesco, Lecture-Discussion Series No. 67.

Specification of sectoral inputs

A nationally developed plan of inter-sectoral operations - after being examined in depth in regard to its feasibility - can be further concretized by locally developed plans taking into consideration the availability of all kinds of resources, existing and potential, and the expressed priorities of the communities involved.

Thus, if one component of a craftsmen training programme, operated by the Labour, Housing or Agriculture Department is relevant to the secondary education sector, this needs to be specified. Likewise if teacher education facilities can be used for rural extension services, this also needs to be specified. Fortunately, in some small projects, usually run by private organizations, these kinds of linkages do exist but their establishment in the public sector is beset with numerous difficulties. The types of linkages will vary between countries, but success will depend on precisely specifying the contribution required from each department and agency. Practical experience tends to show that inter-sectoral linkages must be as simple as is compatible with achieving the goals.

Educational micro-planning

Micro-planning which is programme, need and area specific, and going beyond school mapping to incorporate the basic ingredients of educational mapping, can be directly linked with area development. This kind of approach to micro-planning will be non-mechanistic, quality and policy oriented. The restricted concept of micro-planning, as applied to education, has tended to over-emphasize locational aspects of schools in relation to demographic needs. A wider concept necessarily involves, among other things, a new kind of inter-disciplinary training programme for those who will plan, implement and evaluate. In certain cases, these three functions may have to be performed by one person. In order to develop some models for this kind of approach, it would be useful to conduct a few experimental research projects in collaboration with planning and research institutes. Highly useful data could emerge which would have far-reaching implications not only for realistic planning within the given and developing socio-economic setting of a micro-area, but may call for design of curriculum materials, re-training and re-orientation of personnel, administrative reorganization - implying both decentralization and deconcentration, reform of financial procedures and even financial devolution, development of educational clusters, nuclei complexes, community participation, inter-departmental collaboration, etc., at the grass-roots level. This concept of micro-level educational planning and development will require further elaboration after such field studies have been completed.

V. THE NUCLEARISATION APPROACH

EXPERIENCE OF EDUCATIONAL MICROPLANNING
IN PERU THROUGH NUCLEARISATION

by G. Ruiz-Duran
Cabinet of Vice-Minister of Education, Lima

Introduction

In the last two decades a growing concern has been expressed in Peru as to the need for local-level planning and improved administration in order to stimulate and increase the efficiency of the education system. The process of nuclearization which started in 1972 in the context of a major educational reform, offered a unique opportunity for experimentation in this field.

In this paper it is proposed to analyse a number of experiments in this respect in the light of recent research, highlight the achievements and contributions, and point out a number of endogenous and exogenous limitations and difficulties which have prevented the model from fully taking shape but which were nevertheless instructive experiences.

I. BACKGROUND TO EDUCATIONAL MICROPLANNING IN PERU

1. School supervision services and school planning

Microplanning accords with the approach of a decentralized system. In a historical perspective, the school supervision services may be regarded as the forerunners of local planning and administration, since the establishment in 1941 of the School Inspectorate System marked the real beginning in Peru of a serious and sustained decentralization effort gradually extending to the entire country.

The "School Inspection or Supervision" System was based on 95 school inspectorate districts, official units comprising one or more provinces. The inspectors assumed responsibility for the immediate educational, administrative and economic guidance and supervision of primary education in each school district, for which purpose they were given wide-ranging facilities

and decision-making powers, which accordingly gave them a great deal of authority. The major functions they performed were: "To ensure that instruction is suited to the educational needs of the region in which they serve; to promote the further training of teaching personnel in their districts; to compile statistics for their school district; to propose the establishment of schools in places which should statutorily be provided with them; to contact local authorities and parents for the purpose of ensuring that better use is made of premises ..." (1)

The performance of these and other functions, such as proposals regarding appointments, teachers' pay, and the distribution of school furniture and equipment, set the pattern for microplanning though confined only to the educational field, and made it possible to convey information or educational needs from the grass-roots and operational level to the Ministry which appointed teachers and issued overall educational standards and guidelines.

Noteworthy features here were further training for teachers and educational planning which was put into effect through "Pedagogical Collaboration Centres" and periodic gatherings of teachers (frequently on pay days and taking a more intensive form in March before the start of each academic year).

Educational planning was basically directed towards the adaptation of curricula and syllabuses, the preparation of "school plans" and "classroom plans", identification of the main educational problems affecting the school zone, and preparation of "supervision plans".

When the Regional Education Directorates were set up in 1962, they included Regional Supervision Divisions responsible for guiding the educational work of the teaching profession and for other tasks similar to those carried out by the School Supervision System. The latter was gradually phased out, coming to an end with the establishment of the "Departmental Education Directorates" in 1969. This brought local educational planning to a standstill, but it started up again in a fresh direction through nuclearization as from 1972.

(1) Andrés Cardó y Hugo Díaz, *La Descentralización de la Educación Peruana-Antecedentes y Perspectivas*, Lima, CIPE, Diciembre 1979.

2. Institutionalization of the educational planning system

The notion of school planning was given an impetus by the new trends of general planning of social and economic development disseminated in Latin America through ECLA, resulting in institutionalization of the National Planning System in 1962 with the establishment of the National Planning Institute and the gradual formation of Sectoral Planning Offices.

In the education sector the first planning office was set up in 1958, but it was in the 1960s that the Educational Planning System truly came into its own. Three stages can be distinguished in its development:

- planning at the central level, which began in the 1950s, and became more technical and institutionalized in the 1960s;
- planning at the regional level, which started in the 1970s;
- local-level or microplanning started with nuclearization in 1972, as part of a concept of integral, integrated and participatory planning.

Planning in Peru took on special importance in the 1970s, being considered as a technical instrument of government and this applied also to the education sector. The General Education Act of 1972 stipulated that the education system should be articulated with a flexible and coordinated planning system under an administration subdivided into functional and geographical authorities, which took account of social demand and development requirements.

II. LOCAL-LEVEL OR MICROPLANNING THROUGH NUCLEARIZATION

1. The nuclear model and nuclearization

Nuclearization represents one of the most lasting and profitable contributions of the 1972 educational reform. It was based on the concept of popular participation, defined as a process whereby the workers and basic social organizations would have a hand directly, or with the least possible intermediary action, in decision-making in each and every type of social activity and in setting the course of development of Peruvian society(1). This concept was also the theoretical origin of a new set of economic (cooperatives, socially-oriented agricultural corporations, restructured rural communities,

(1) Carlos Franco, Perú Participación Popular, Serie Realidad Nacional Ediciones CEDEP, Lima, 1979.

labour communities, commonly owned and self-managed enterprises), educational (community educational nuclei, instruction units) and neighbourhood institutions, social communication media, social organizations, and the like(1).

The political setting for the start of nuclearization in 1972, was explained by Augusto Salazar Bondy, one of the main ideologists of the educational reform;

"Nuclearization assists participation and, at the same time, is promoted by a participatory population. The NECs integrate and operate more effectively in a community where certain basic conditions of social and economic vitality exist which assist social change and in-depth awareness"(2).

As a later Peruvian author has said:

"One of the most original features of nuclearization is that it was postulated as an alternative to the school model, which is the traditional model prevailing in education systems the world over. Peru's educational reform not only poses the question as to whether this school model is obsolete, non-viable and incompatible, but posits an alternative in the form of a new organization through which society itself takes over the direction of its own education"(3).

In addition, Raymond Lyons recognized that the Educational Development Team of the nucleus represented a new type of supervision, which provides advice, permanent guidance and training for teachers within its area of coverage(4).

The process of nuclearization comprises various stages of structuralization, implementation and operationalization of educational facilities within Community Educational Nuclei.

The Community Educational Nucleus (NEC)

An NEC is a basic community organisation to promote cooperation in the management of educational services and any other services which could be utilised in the domain of education, and reinvigorate community life. It is composed of:

- (1) Carlos Franco, *op. cit.*
- (2) Augusto Salazar Bondy, "La Educación del Hombre Nuevo. La Reforma Educativa Peruana, Edit Paidós, Bs.As, 1976.
- (3) Carlos Malpica, "Cambio Radical del Proceso de Nuclearización", Suplemento Laboral del Diario La Pensa, Lima, Perú, 1978.
- (4) Raymond Lyons, Primary School Inspection in Peru. IIEP, Unesco, 1975, Paris.

- specific geographical area;
- interconnected network of State and non-State educational centres and programmes operating in the area;
- community facilities (material resources, premises and installations with educational potential);
- individuals and legal entities, including enterprises, basic organizations, institutions for educational co-operation and other types of institution within the area of coverage of the nucleus.

For operational purposes it possesses the following organic structure: NEC Directorate, Educational Development Team, Administrative Support Team, Community Education Board, Base Centre and Educational Centres and Programmes.

This model has remained essentially the same from the time of the promulgation of General Education Act 19326 in 1972, until 1976.

2. The nuclearization process

The various phases and activities involved in the structuring and starting up of NECs have given rise to various experiments, methodologies and techniques in microplanning. In the initial stage, the exertion of influence and initiatives by the central headquarters authorities were necessary for structuralization and implementation. Central "over-protection", however, together with "delegated tasks" from regional and zonal bodies, in addition to their own, reduced the NEC's "capacity" and notably impaired their development.

Some statistics on Peru will give an idea of the complexity of implementing this process. Peru is a country of contrasts, multicultural and multilingual. Physically speaking, it possesses three natural regions: the Coast, the Mountains and the Jungle, with an area of 1,249,000 Km² and a population of 17,000,000, 51.3% of whom live on the Coast, 39.1% in the Mountains and 9.6% in the Jungle. The high growth rate of 2.8% has produced a biased population pattern where 43.2% of the country's inhabitants are aged under 15 years.

The relatively undeveloped state of the interior of the country has produced high rates of migration to the capital and other urban areas, which now account for 65% of the population. Most of the population is Spanish-speaking; the number of Quechua speakers amounting to only 2,500,000 and the indigenous inhabitants of the Jungle to 200,000 split up into numerous ethno-linguistic groups.

The economically active population accounts for 31.4% of the total population, broken down as follows: agriculture and fisheries 47%, mining 1.5%, industry 12.6%, building 4% and services 35%. Politically, the country consists of 24 departments and one Constitutional Province, 145 Provinces and 1,300 Districts.

It would be a very lengthy business to deal with each of the individual activities involved in this process, covering as it does: design of the model nucleus; its structuralization; delimitation of its geographical area of coverage; designation of the base centres and the headquarters of the NEC; the elaboration of regulations for it; its organizational pattern; preparation of the organizational and functional handbook; formation of CONSECOM (Community Education Board); the election of directors; the training of directors and programmers; staff recruitment and classification, with the determination of incentives and pay scales for NEC personnel; appointment and manning of Educational Development Teams (Promoters of Initial Education, Basic Education, Educational Extension and Pupil Guidance and Welfare); preparation of technical and methodological material for microplanning and its operationalization. Some of these aspects are dealt with in 3. Experience in Microplanning.

The gradual application of nuclearization was begun as from 1972, when 137 NECs were established and continued up to 1976 when the system was widespread and covered 819 NECs.

The process of nuclearization could only proceed in line with the dwindling amount of public funds available and with the operational capacity on hand to implement it. In 1977, the boundaries of NECs were redrawn as part of a manning rationalization drive, resulting in a cut in their numbers to 641.

Although there has been no full evaluation of the functioning of the NECs and of the above drastic reduction, a number of advantages have been noted. For instance, in a study on educational nuclearization in Villa el Salvador, it is stated that:

"The main advantage of the recent combining of three NECs into one, is the possibility of applying planning criteria in a unified manner throughout the school network and in educational centres and programmes, together with being able to work more directly with the Executive Council of CUAVES (communal representative body of Villa el Salvador). The main drawback is the cut in professional and

administrative manpower in NEC 10-04, when set against a highly complex and populous area"(1).

The structuring of the NECs involved a considerable physical planning effort at its initial stage, and subsequently a great deal of work on design and organizational implementation, staff, infrastructure, technological norms and resources to prepare for the operational stage.

As a direct consequence of experience obtained and evaluation of its operation, the NEC regulations were adjusted in 1976 and a new typology established taking account of the characteristics of local settings, together with size, coverage, and so forth:

- Type I - Basically urban
- Type II - Basically rural
- Type III - Special (low population concentration)

Subsequently, in 1977, staffing guides were established corresponding to each of the above types in an effort to overcome the defects of applying a uniform criterion to highly diversified situations.

While not wishing to emphasize administrative aspects, the bureaucratization of the NECs and the burden imposed by the routine functions they have been obliged to undertake should be mentioned. In a sample of 20% of the NECs of Metropolitan Lima, it was noted that the six zones had entrusted the NECs with duties which were not within their field of competence, (such as wage payments and the compulsory registration and deposit of zonal files). This enormously restricted their operational capacity and hindered the work of the Administrative Support Team, which became a kind of clearing house for files dealt with at another level(2).

This is merely an example of the tendency of higher authorities to transfer routine or adjunct functions to subordinate grades, keeping for themselves only those which confer greater power or prestige, or both. It is also proof of the necessity for proper inter-relations with the higher zonal, regional and central authorities.

-
- (1) José Rivero Herrera, La Nuclearización Educativa en Villa el Salvador (Perú), Oficina Regional de Unesco para América Latina y el Caribe, Santiago de Chile, 1978.
 - (2) Ministerio de Educación, Propuesta de Reestructuración de las Direcciones Regionales y Zonales de Educación y sus Respetivos CAP, Lima, 1977, Oficina de Organización y Métodos.

3. Relevant experience in microplanning

The experience of micro- or local-level planning will be examined from two angles: at the local level, the quest being for a more equitable spatial distribution of services and for participation of the organized community in managing educational services, through the structuring of the NECs and on the basis of their area of geographical coverage. The second angle is that of regarding the NEC as an organized community requiring the individual planning phases of situational diagnosis, preparation of the operational plan, curriculum programming, programming of activities, drawing up of integrated projects, and plan implementation and evaluation.

(1) Delimitation of the area of coverage of the nucleus

One of the first tasks for the structuring of the NECs was their geographical demarcation or size. This complex and difficult task was conducted and directed by the Sectoral Planning Office. Initially an important role was played by ex-school supervisors until the Zonal Education Directorates took over.

Although this process was marked by technical limitations owing to lack of statistical information and of a thorough acquaintance with the real social, economic and anthropological conditions of the area, which in some cases made it difficult to form a NEC, the efforts made served to further improve the methods and techniques used and to acquire more knowledge of educational reality.

"Various degrees of difficulty were encountered in the establishment of the networks, particularly in the urban areas, on account of population concentration and in some areas of the jungle region, the scattered nature of services. In the case of rural areas special importance was given to the processing of information concerning transport facilities, the distance between home and school, and socio-economic affinities of the communities"(1).

In addition to these difficulties, other external factors intervened, such as local, provincial and departmental interests, and political and group pressures.

A series of technical documents were issued to guide the functioning of NECs as shown in Table 1.

(1) Andrés Cardó, Hugo Diaz, Raul Vargas, La Reforma Educativa y la Nuclearización en el Perú, CIPE, 1980, Lima.

Table 1. Technical Material and Instruments relevant to Microplanning at Community Educational Nucleus Level

Area	Technical Document or Instrument	Source	Year
RESEARCH	1. Handbook of NEC Situational Diagnosis	National Institute of Educational Research and Development and Planning Office	1975
	2. Group Dynamics in the preparation of NEC Situational Diagnosis	National Institute of Educational Research and Development	1977
ADMINISTRATION	3. Statutes of NECs	Supreme Education Board	1973-1976
	4. Handbook on the Organization and Functions of NECs	Sectoral Planning Office Office of Organization and Methods	1974-1977
	5. Table of allocation of personnel by type of NEC	Office of Organization and Methods	1977
	6. Deconcentration of functions at NEC and Education centre level	Office of Organization and Methods	1976
PLANNING	7. Handbook of NEC structure	Sectoral Planning Office General Directorate for Infrastructure CONESCAL	1974
- Physical Planning	8. Project for Physical implementation of NECs (Methodological guide)	" " "	1975
- Framing of Operational Plan	9. Guidelines for Planning at NEC level	Sectoral Planning Office	1973
	10. Planning process at NEC level	" " "	1979
	11. Methodological Norms for the establishment of the School Zoning Map	" " "	1979
Curriculum Programming	12. Guidelines for the application of Curriculum Policy at NEC and classroom level	Technical Curriculum Committee	1976-1979
Service Centres	13. Pre-feasibility Study	OSPE	1975
	14. Design of Experimental Service Centres	International Development Agency	

(2) NEC situational diagnosis

The process of planning at NEC level is directed towards securing community participation and the integration of all the activities programmed by the various sectors of the NEC, so as to result in a form of programming that will gradually become more relevant to the actual conditions in which the NEC operates.

The process of micro- or local-level planning begins with a NEC-level situational diagnosis. Experience of carrying out such diagnoses resulted in the drawing up of methodological guidelines contained in the "Handbook of NEC Situational Diagnosis", compiled by INIDE (the National Institute of Educational Research and Development). This Handbook has been one of the main technical instruments for implementing microplanning in its broadest sense, covering the planning of educational services, curriculum programming, and the programming of formal and non-formal education activities. The specific aims of situational diagnosis, as outlined in that document, are:

- (a) to learn more about the real situation and problems confronting the NEC (social, cultural, economic and geographic);
- (b) to assist the development and diversification of curricula, so as to tie in general educational principles with the special conditions of each NEC;
- (c) to make basic material available for the planning process of NECs and other administrative authorities;
- (d) to assist the programming of formal and non-formal educational activities;
- (e) to provide a frame of reference for the planning of various educational back-up services such as pupil guidance and welfare;
- (f) to make it possible to develop basic research at NEC level;
- (g) to provide material which will, in the short term, help to evaluate progress of the reform process at NEC level;
- (h) to assist community participation and multisectoral coordination.

Later the National Institute elaborated a further complementary document: "Group Dynamics in situational diagnosis of a NEC", in order to establish a specific methodology for the organisation of the work at the

nucleo level and a rational distribution of responsibilities and tasks(1). This makes an important contribution to aspects concerning the organization of groups, the dynamics of teacher participation and research techniques which may be used; it is therefore of great assistance as regards diagnosis assignments.

Community participation in situational diagnosis has been very positive, particularly in the "Pueblos Jóvenes" (new populated areas around the cities) and in the countryside, where it was used as a specific instrument for the gathering of data in "participatory surveys".

Despite the efforts put into this task, the lack of training of NEC personnel in research techniques and methods and the excessive workload on the educational development team were limiting factors.

On the basis of this experience, the Sectoral Planning Office drew up a document "Planning Process at the Community Educational Nucleus Level"(2), which does much to simplify the foregoing Handbook, reduces the variables involved in diagnosis and emphasized two aspects:

- (a) Contextual aspects of the NEC, comprising: identification of the NEC, physical description, cultural description, demographic aspects and economic structure.
- (b) Educational aspects: pupils, teachers, administrative structure and educational infrastructure.

There is also a chapter on "Assessment of general problems", which follows on from and winds up the diagnosis and at the same time provides the first step in drawing up the plan.

"It differs fundamentally from the diagnosis as regards time dimension of utilization, since the situational diagnosis is concerned with the framing of medium and long-term plans, while assessment of general problems is the starting point for the preparation of short-term plans"(3).

Assessment of general problems has precise aims concerning: quantification or qualification of perceived situations obtaining in the NEC area; the ability to identify such problems and their content in order to

-
- (1) Rodolfo Sanchez, *Dinamica de Grupos en la elaboración del Diagnostico situacional del NEC*, Instituto Nacional de Investigación y Desarrollo Educación, Lima, 1977.
 - (2) Ministerio de Educación, *Proceso de Planeamiento a nivel de núcleo educativo comunal*, Oficina Sectorial de Planificación, Lima, 1979.
 - (3) *op. cit.* Cardó Andrés, Díaz Hugo.

seek short-term solutions. Once the problems have been placed in order of priority this provides a starting point for subsequent programming operations at NEC level. Identification of general problems covers the following strategic areas: education and development; system services; curriculum and educational technology; personnel training; administrative organization; educational infrastructure; nuclearization and participation; research and coordination and communication.

(3) Educational Map

Various approaches have been tried for the conceptualization of educational mapping techniques. Initially, preference was given to the following approach: Educational mapping is a basic reference instrument reflecting the actual educational situation in terms of geographic, socio-economic and demographic aspects of the educational potential derived from the facilities available to the community in a given geographical area. It includes the topography, demography, infrastructure and socio-economic aspects of the area, and serves to establish the territories to be covered by NECs. Recently, in the Preliminary Document on "Methodological Norms for the Establishment of the Educational Map", prepared by the Microplanning Unit of the Sectoral Planning Office in 1979, it was described as "an instrument for short- and medium-term educational planning making it possible to organize or reorganize educational supply in terms of the needs of a particular area". It makes use of graphic representation of the specific features of the education system, the territorial distribution of education services and the characteristics of existing capacity, with the purpose of facilitating decision-making aimed at improving educational services. It is distinct from School Mapping in that the latter refers only to the in-school education system.

(4) Drawing up the "NEC Operational Plan"

The second stage in planning consists of the systematic preparation of a plan for educational development. It comprises the following stages:

- Preparation of methodological bases and guidelines; this is done by the Zonal Directorates in compliance with standards laid down by the Sectoral Planning Office;
- Correlation of policies and priorities established at regional and sectoral level;

- Programming, comprising:
 - defining of specific objectives;
 - establishing goals;
 - programming activities;
 - estimating financial resources.

The specific objectives should reflect expected results in the period covered by the Plan which can contribute to solving problem situations (specified when determining problem areas) and help to meet educational needs within the scope of the NEC and contribute to local development.

When determining goals, the following are considered:

- goals with regard to enrolment, teachers, sections and infrastructure, broken down by level and modalities, in-school and out-of-school education programmes;
- goals with regard to teaching staff employment and requirements must be determined in terms of what is strictly necessary, bearing in mind a policy of rational and effective use of available resources.

Programming of activities covers identifying, establishing an order of priority and deciding upon activities to be carried out in the period covered by the Plan. The identification of activities and listing them by order of priority will be carried out according to established objectives, making sure that they are directed towards solving the problems pinpointed in the diagnosis and in the determination of problem areas.

Activities are organized on a systematic basis, in accordance with the strategic areas. The objective underlying each activity, the goal the activity is expected to achieve, the strategic area and the person or body responsible for it are specified.

(5) Curriculum Planning at NEC level

The functions of NEC extend well beyond the area of in-school education, covering the system of Regular Basic Education, and measures in respect of informal and out-of-school education in support of initial education, adult education, basic labour education, special vocational training and educational extension work.

Little of significance has been done in curriculum planning, a series of factors having prevented its development. Mention should be made, however, of the efforts of the Central Ministry to set standards. The

Technical Curriculum Committee has established precise guidelines for the implementation of curriculum policy at NEC and classroom level. Similarly, the General Directorates for Basic Labour Education and for Initial Education have drawn up specific standards for the purpose of correlating curriculum development with advances in technology in practice.

In the NECs which have succeeded in establishing curriculum planning in practical terms, it is interesting to note the way in which they have used the NEC situational analysis for that purpose. Significant progress has been made in this respect in some of the jungle NECs, where community participation has been instrumental in directing education along more pragmatic, closely work-oriented lines.

(6) Participation by the Community

The proposals for community participation in NEC went much further than traditional forms of participation, i.e. financial support, advisory services and backing for NEC and other activities. However, the conditions necessary to ensure such participation underwent changes as policy changed, both in regard to the context and to the actual process of making the NEC operational. Thus, for example, the participatory mechanism known as the "community education council" has been subjected to normative changes which have affected its representativity, with the result that it no longer has any say in educational management as such and was initially reduced to traditional co-operation with the NEC Directorate in an auxiliary capacity and then, as from 1976, deprived of any practical role whatsoever, but without any explicit norms being laid down.

Participation has, however, been engendered in a wide variety of ways. The study carried out by CIPE on Educational Reform and Nuclearization notes:

"... there is evidence that communal participation is more likely to be found in suburban areas and in the most deprived rural areas, although in these areas schools are always seen as an opportunity for personal social promotion and have nothing to do with any local form of socio-economic structure.

In the First Educational Region, community participation resulted in the construction of 61 educational centres in the Jaén NEC 20-14. In the Sixth Region (Iquitos, jungle), in NEC 32-61, all the schools are communal property. This shows that the community plays a significant part in financing education" (1).

(1) *op. cit.*

Another positive aspect of community participation is to be found in specific areas which have been a focal point of multisectoral development activities. A case in point has been the Department of Ancash, and more specifically the Huaraz area (urban area) and Villa el Salvador, a new village south of Lima. In both of these participatory initiatives have produced results ranging from the preparation of the situational diagnosis to the production of their own educational material, with strong emphasis on educational extension activities and adult education. They have achieved far more than anything the Education Sector has done.

The most important examples of participation in the NEC of Villa el Salvador concern the planning of enrolment by catchment areas, the construction of new classrooms, organizing out of the school education programmes and the relationship of the community organization with the formal participation channels proposed by the educational reform.

(7) Rationalization of resources

One of the main obstacles to the implementation and development of the educational reform has been financial and budgetary restrictions. The proportion of the total national budget earmarked for education dropped from 22.9 per cent in 1972 to 13.6 per cent in 1978. There has, however, been an increase in funds for services, owing largely to savings made from the rationalization of both personnel and infrastructure.

The rationalization process was particularly active after 1977, the year in which the country's economic crisis became particularly acute. The NECs proposed and implemented rationalization measures such as:

- Assignment of teachers from basic labour education (first and second cycles) and special vocational training establishments (whose enrolment targets decreased significantly) to regular basic education centres;
- Increase in the number of pupils per section;
- Amalgamation of centres and/or sections with small numbers of pupils;
- Community contribution to finance new classrooms where no budgetary allowance was available.

Furthermore, in order to deal with the shortage of classrooms and buildings, it was decided to extend the rotation system and utilize existing community premises.

Mention should also be made of the support given by certain private educational institutions, especially religious establishments, with which agreements were made that their facilities would be available to NECs for use as basic labour education and regular basic education centres on a rotation basis, in addition to their own courses. The use of communal facilities, especially for re-training courses, came to be relatively well-organized using cinemas, auditoriums in private education centres and other community premises.

Another form of rationalization of services has been that of the establishment of Service Centres (Centrales de Servicios). Four NEC service centres are currently in operation on an experimental basis, with the co-operation of the US.AID. These centres are designed to deal with the practical aspects of organizing NEC resources - infrastructure, buildings and equipment - the aim being to rationalize and optimize their utilization. They are comprised of a set of both permanent and mobile facilities placed at the disposal of the educational centres forming part of the nuclear network for the purpose of implementation of the curriculum in such fields as labour education, science teaching, recreation and so on. Feasibility studies have shown conclusively that the adoption of the service centre cuts down spending two or threefold in comparison with permanently equipping all NEC education centres.

III. LIMITING FACTORS

A wide variety of factors have affected the implementation and development of nuclearization and have prevented it from becoming fully operational, and this in turn has weakened the impact of microplanning(1).

The first of these factors were the changes in true ideological and political orientations of the Government, which were reflected in education policy and in policies in other sectors.

There are also endogenous administrative factors derived from bureaucratic shortcomings and lack of coordination between the central, regional and local levels, the application of standard criteria to the most heterogeneous of situations, the shortage of human and financial resources to support the operations of the NEC and the lack of incentives and training

- (1) Carlos Malpica, Education and the Community in the Peruvian Educational Reform, in "International Review of Education, XXVI. Unesco/IE, Hamburg, 1980.

for personnel. It should be noted in this connection that significant efforts have been made by the Ministry of Education in the training of NEC Directors, promoters and educational extension personnel, by means of courses, workshops, seminars, symposia and the like at national, regional and zonal level, and in bringing that training up to date and providing support in the form of technical documents and material. However, what has been done is still insufficient when seen in the light of demand for continuing education.

One of the most serious problems is the fact that NEC directors have very little power of decision and authority. This is particularly acute in urban zones, where the directors of education centres prefer to consult the Zonal Director and ask for advice and/or practical measures.

IV. DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTS

Some of the limiting factors referred to throughout this paper, especially in the foregoing paragraph, are becoming less serious and there are signs that changes for the better can be expected. Prospects are brighter for the development of local-level planning within a context of intersectoral development and with greater relevance to the local situation as a whole (local government).

From the strictly technical point of view, a positive factor is that all NECs possess their respective Operational Plans which have been drawn up with some degree of community participation.

With regard to the methodologies produced and tested for local-level planning and for the training of programme personnel, significant advances have been made and are being improved upon as the new methodologies become established through exchanges of experience and assistance from various ministerial bodies.

Interest in NECs is also shown by decentralized public bodies such as the National Institute for Recreation, Physical Education and Sport, the National Institute of Culture and the Peruvian University System, which have recourse to NECs as agents of "social projection", and such institutions are also making contributions to the development of NEC activities.

THE "NUCLEARIZATION" PROGRAMME IN COSTA RICA

by Carlos E. Olivera
Universidad Nacional, San José

I. THE ORIGINS OF THE PROGRAMME

During the diagnostic work that took place in 1971 in Costa Rica as part of the Educational Development Plan, it became painfully clear that the country's rural schools were no exception to the Latin American rule that they are second-class citizens in the educational republic. Every indicator was in their case at least twice as bad as in urban schools, whether concerning coverage or attrition rates, teacher qualifications or physical facilities, availability of reading materials or of teaching aids, information flows or curricular relevance to social needs, rural schools were in alarmingly poor shape in comparison to their not-too-brilliant urban counterparts.

It was soon discovered that at the root of such a situation there were basic administrative failures and misconceptions. Laws and regulations, as well as common procedures of communication, supervision and control, assumed that every centre of (six-grade) primary education consisted of at least six classrooms and a six-teacher team, smaller schools being viewed as temporary exceptions. In actual fact, out of 2,600 elementary schools, no more than 460 fulfilled these criteria, whereas over 1,600 (all of them rural) had only one or two classrooms and teachers, even if most of them managed to offer the full six-year course. Moreover, those teachers who had to work alone and who constituted the greater part of the unqualified personnel, seldom or never received a supervisor's visit, as they were frequently located in places with difficult access - a circumstance that deprived them of books and teaching materials as well. In such a situation, the imposed uniformity of syllabuses was in fact an element which contributed to widening the gap in achievement between urban and rural schools.

To combat this situation, the Educational Development Plan proposed, for the whole school system, to implement a "network" concept: i.e. the grouping of several first- and second-cycle schools (primary level) around a third-cycle one (first half of secondary level), and the linking of several of the latter with a "diversified education" centre (senior high school), in such a way that, among other things, the upper-level centre was supposed in each case to lend technical assistance to its cluster of lower-level ones. As to the small, isolated rural schools, the Plan stated (para. 6.3) that these,

"should be grouped under the concept of nuclearization, which will allow them to benefit from services that, while being indispensable to the quality of their education, could never be put at the disposal of each separate school".

Thus the notion of "nucleus" or cluster of small rural schools entered into the Costa Rican educational system. There were three definite features: (a) it would involve and be part of the structure of school administration; (b) it was intended to improve the quality of elementary education; and (c) both aspects were limited to the field of rural education. Thus the underlying causes of change were, not only the certainty that rural schools were offering a service of unacceptably poor quality, but also the assumption that the root of the problem was of an administrative nature. The Plan, however, did not elaborate on these ideas and they were not a priority for the first stage of implementation in 1972.

Nevertheless, during this school year, while trying to carry out the first changes inscribed in the Plan, the Ministry undertook the preparation of the second stage, which involved a comprehensive administrative reform. A number of supervisors and regional officers were associated with this work, which of course included detailed proposals for improving the communication and supervision network, and the spelling out of new responsibilities to be delegated to the lesser echelons of the hierarchy. Thus the idea of "nuclei" began to receive more attention, and quite a number of field supervisors spontaneously started subdividing their school districts into smaller groups of schools called "nuclei". Unfortunately, as the idea had not yet been properly formulated, unregulated implementation became merely a tool for simplifying the supervisors' administrative chores, and no attention at all was paid to educational aims.

II. THE IDEA MATURES

Towards the end of 1972, two members of the IIEP staff were by arrangement sent to Costa Rica to do a piece of research concerning (a) school mapping and (b) the impact of demographic changes on the school system - both, of course, closely interrelated. The study, which was part of a world-wide survey, centred on one of the 14 educational "Regions" that existed at the time in the country, i.e. that of San Ramón, in the Andean valleys not very far from the capital. Their work was carried out in close association with a number of educational officers, both at the Ministry headquarters and in the San Ramón area. Thus, at both levels, quite a few officers currently engaged in planning and in actual administration became familiar with a methodology, which demonstrated the relevance of the school-cluster idea to actual field problems of the school system(1).

Meanwhile, the administrative reform which had made quite satisfactory progress at Ministry headquarters, became rather bogged down in trying to define the extent of devolution of powers to regional offices, and had made no progress at all concerning the schools themselves.

Finally, towards the end of 1974, the Costa Rican version of the nuclearization idea acquired definite contours.

It has to be emphasized that this was a genuinely national article: although it coincided with a strong Latin American movement, it owed nothing to foreign examples. The Peruvian model was in fact examined and explicitly discarded as alien to the national situation and goals; other countries' experiences were not considered, or even known, at that time. The Costa Rican concept was described as'

- "the administrative and pedagogical grouping of a small number of educational institutions
- within an area carefully defined through the application of demographic, geographical, communications and socio-economic parameters,
- forming a comprehensive educational unit for initial, basic and lifelong education as a component of community development,
- well-connected with the national network of educational centres and with vocational training institutions,

(1) HALLAK, J., *Planning the Location of Schools - An Instrument of Educational Policy*, Paris: Unesco/IIEP, 1977.
 HALLAK, J., CAILLODS, F., BRJESKA, I., SECCO, L., *La Région de San Ramon, Costa Rica - Método de Preparación del Mapa Escolar: Estudios de Caso*, Paris: Unesco/IIEP 1976.

- and thus capable of providing adequate education for the area's development, in harmony with the larger goals of national development"(1).

It is easy to see the differences of this concept with the Peruvian and other models. The emphasis lies on the formal schooling system, rather than on the community and its political consciousness; on general education rather than on work-related training or on actual agricultural production; it envisages small areas (five or six schools, implying a total population of less than 3,000) instead of larger ones (in Peru each nucleus averages some 25 schools of all types and levels - the size of a Costa Rican school district). These differences, while making the Costa Rican scheme appear modest, are rooted in a sober appraisal of what is feasible in the national context. The reasoning was:

- (a) Most peasants, though knowing themselves very poor, do not feel oppressed in a country where political democracy is deeply rooted, social stratification is very gradual, and any one can and does make use of his or her freedom of expression without fear of the police. Thus there is no hope of raising their consciousness to the point where they would gladly undertake the tiresome task of managing the school system, or their share of it: they trust the Government with this service, which anyway is already present everywhere and is taken for granted.
- (b) The very strong, undisciplined individualism of the Costa Rican people, as fashioned by history, makes it next to impossible for them to undertake joint ventures of the size that would be required in the operation of a group of schools. The teachers of several neighbouring schools, with their more sophisticated views on society, could perhaps, acting as a team, encourage the people's sense of community, but not the other way round.
- (c) This fact also explains the small size of the Costa Rican nucleus, together with the difficulty of physical

(1) "Política Educativa en el campo de la nuclearización"; San José, Ministerio de Educación Pública, 1975, p. 4.

communications, especially during the 8-month rainy season which coincides with most of the school year. There would be no point in devising larger areas whose inhabitants do not want to (and sometimes could not) communicate with each other.

- (d) As for the stress on general, "academic" education, it is the population who demand this, particularly at the primary level, for they aspire to a white-collar future for their children, and reject the idea of the school "wasting time" on humbler trades which would tie them down to manual work - and which, they think, they will learn at home anyway.

On the strength of this reasoning, which supported the national definition of the school nucleus as stated above, the main objectives of the whole programme were identified as follows:

- (i) The "nuclearization" programme should make a specific contribution to the *administrative and budgetary rationalization* process, as it should favour a better use and maximise the efficiency of limited resources - staff, premises, teaching aids, and so on. The main idea is to go beyond the traditional model of school organization, to a new and more effective organizational model where administrative and pedagogical decisions are located mid-way between the ineffective single school and the invisible - and unseeing - higher authorities. This implies that the "nucleus" has to be equipped with some administrative and physical resources, which would in part have to be relinquished by administrative units located somewhat higher up the hierarchical ladder.
- (ii) This administrative goal, while in itself very important, was, however, to be subordinated to the deeper objective of attaining a substantial *qualitative improvement* of the education offered to rural populations - which was vastly inferior to the quality of urban schools, produced very poor quantitative returns, and completely neglected the adult sections of the

population. The nucleus should bring about a situation in which, say, four or five hundred students will be attended to by twelve to fifteen teachers - including some "specialists" for arts, sports, crafts, etc. - who will enrich their teaching through mutual exchanges and will have a library, workshops, guidance services, a sports field, audiovisual aids, etc., which separate schools could never hope to obtain. All these elements, reinforced by a couple of specialized teachers, would serve the adult community as well.

These objectives were to be attained through gradual extension of the programme. The implementation unit was to be the "school region", of which there were 16 in 1975. And, since the idea as previously defined, applied only to rural areas, the first regions to be chosen would be those where urban centres were minimal.

III. IMPLEMENTING THE SCHEME

1. The guidelines

In order to carry out the programme, the concepts involved in the definition and the objectives had first to be given operational meaning. The planning team in charge of the programme began this task using a basic document (see note 2, p. 5), on the understanding that continuous evaluation of the field operation would suggest further refinements and modifications of the guidelines.

Thus, the "small number" of schools that should form a nucleus "within a carefully-defined area" was clarified for the purposes of drawing up school maps, as a group of between four and seven schools, serving between 200 and 800 pupils entrusted to between 5 and 25 teachers(1).

The time necessary to make the trip from the central school of the nucleus to its farthest satellite should not exceed one hour. No nucleus should be made up of only one-teacher schools. Other numerical criteria were also provided as to the minimum and the desirable amount of specialized staff, of secretarial facilities, of volumes in the common library, of workshop spaces, of audiovisual aids, and so on.

-
- (1) These figures refer to nuclei consisting only of elementary schools. If a 3rd cycle school was included, there could be up to 1,500 students.

The "comprehensive" character of the nucleus was then interpreted to mean that it had to offer to the people in the area the whole gamut of educational services that the Constitution and the basic laws of the country required everywhere: pre-school, basic 9-year education, complementary or remedial education for adults, and even special education for handicapped children. As it was clear that some of these services could not be set up in each nucleus (mainly, the last 3 years of basic education, and special facilities for handicapped children), the network concept was utilised so that smaller nuclei would be linked with the proper institutions in adjoining areas.

Finally, to achieve the ultimate end of making rural education not only effective but a positive contribution to community and national development, the education staff of the nuclei were encouraged to make as a team whatever adaptations of contents and methods were necessary to meet concrete local needs and situations, so that standards for achievement set at national level could be attained through different ways and means.

According to these guidelines, it was expected that full coverage by the programme would require the setting up of some four hundred nuclei and would take at least five years.

Finally, a list was prepared of the ten projects necessary to give an effective start to the programme in the chosen regions. Each was entrusted to one office of the Planning Directorate, in most cases jointly with another Ministry department and specific regional officers. These projects dealt with:

- (a) The drafting of detailed guidelines to be used by teachers and headmasters in each nucleus in organizing their activities.
- (b) The detailed variables, to be used in defining the boundaries of each particular nucleus, keeping in mind the "regionalization" project being prepared by the Ministry of Planning for all sectors of the Government.
- (c) The description of a new administrative system for the "nuclearized" regions.
- (d) The activities to be carried out for training supervisors and nuclei coordinators in their new duties.
- (e) A plan for training all the personnel to be included in the nuclei.

- (f) The drafting of operational guidelines for adapting curricula at the local level.
- (g) The guidelines to be used in each nucleus for the preparation of individual projects concerning physical facilities and equipment.
- (h) The preparation of alternative blueprints for the local organization of common services: library, teaching aids, counselling, secretarial services, workshops, and so on.
- (i) The drafting of guidelines for cooperation between the educational system and several other Ministries and public institutions, both at the central and at local levels.
- (j) The publication of a booklet providing some theoretical tenets and practical guidelines for organizing interaction between the school and the community.

2. The Expansion

Thus, at the end of 1974, the Ministry of Education was in possession of all the fundamental elements to start the programme. Two regions had been chosen: that of San Ramón (about 65,000 inhabitants), where most basic studies had been ready for over a year, and that of Pérez Zeledón (about 100,000 inhabitants), farther away from San José to the South East. However, a whole year was lost, owing to circumstances of a political nature, which distracted the attention of the Ministry.

Finally, after a few modest training sessions held with the personnel of the two regions, the innovation was launched in March 1976, at the beginning of the school year. In October of the same year the experience was subjected to a somewhat rapid evaluation, and in 1977-78 another two regions were added: Ciudad Neily (about 96,000 inhabitants), located between Panamá and the Pérez Zeledón region, and Santa Cruz, the smallest of all (about 45,000 people), in the middle of the Northwestern province of Guanacaste. For two years (1978-80) further expansion has been stopped due to the 1978 change of Government.

A look at the quantitative data at the present moment reveals that the "nuclearized" regions, which represent nearly 14% of the country's population, have 17% of primary-level enrolment (but only 12% of the pre-school level) and almost the same proportion of teachers: this fact is due

to a stronger demographic growth in rural areas. On the other hand, owing to the scattered population, the schools are at the same time more numerous (26.2% of the total) and smaller (78.8 students per school, against a national average of 120.7), and they require the assistance of a quarter of the total number of supervisors.

IV. ATTAINMENTS, SHORTCOMINGS AND FAILURES

1. Attainments

The launching of the programme in 1975 was on the whole very well received, sometimes with a feeling akin to enthusiasm on the part of the staff concerned and with expectancy by others who hoped to be shortly incorporated into the programme. The rather modest preparatory sessions held in each region prior to the formal inauguration of the nuclear scheme were usually enough for the local staff to undertake their own organizational changes. Exchanges proceeded rather briskly, and soon most nuclei were trying to work along new lines, distributing responsibilities according to administrative levels.

Thus, the small group formed by all headmasters in the nucleus (the headmaster of the central school acting as coordinator) took collective decisions, sometimes referring to the district supervisor or the regional Director. Periodic meetings of the whole staff (in some small nuclei, this was practically indistinguishable from the former group) served to exchange information and experiences, and to make suggestions for decisions to other levels. In a good number of places, a third type of meeting included members of the community - often those occupying some post in Community Development Associations or other organized groups.

To what extent all this has continued and improved to this day, and - most important - to what extent it has contributed to improving the actual quality of the education offered in the "nuclearized" areas, is not really known, since the Ministry has not carried out the surveys that were required over the last two years.

In the meantime, it is clear that at least one indirect, but very important goal of the programme has been achieved in a large measure: as teachers in local areas became used to exchanging experiences, and taking or suggesting decisions, they have matured, professionally speaking, so that they are less dependent on Ministry decisions, better able to respond to local needs, less "subjects" of the hierarchy and more responsible

participants in the system. This development was rather doubtful at the beginning, because the larger regions included in the programme (the two in the South, Pérez Zeledón and Ciudad Neily) were the ones with the largest numbers of unqualified teachers. There was, however, a very important positive factor which helped to overcome this difficulty: the on-site courses offered by the two universities, particularly the large training programme conducted by the National University of Heredia since 1974, aimed at giving all teachers the opportunity of either gaining their teacher's diploma or obtaining further grades. The style of these courses, which on the average take three years, tends to develop in each small group of teachers the qualities of self-guidance and self-reliance that are needed in the context of the nuclei. Furthermore, the B.A.'s in Education offered to already-qualified teachers have different subject specialisms (on Mathematics, Science and Spanish), so that the holders of these degrees are later able to assist their colleagues, either separately or as organized teams.

In any case, it is curious that, in the opinion of most authorities, the areas in which there is a greater proportion of unqualified teachers are also those most open to change, in which the personnel is most ready to devote part of its "free time" to professional meetings, to planning sessions or to formal studies. This widely-observed fact points to very serious deficiencies in the old type of training, which seems to have favoured the development of a self-sufficient attitude - extremely negative for the kind of work that has to take place inside the nuclei, where team-work and open-mindedness are essential.

The increased maturity of a large number of teachers has had several beneficial effects on the operation of the nuclei. The most important is perhaps that in very many cases the detailed, uniform curricula published by the Ministry have been modified by the teacher teams (often those of several nuclei together), in order to exclude some points that were meaningless in the local context and to include others relevant to the pupils' needs. This kind of initiative has been all the more successful in the not infrequent cases when the district supervisor has wholeheartedly embraced the "nuclear" philosophy. To give one example of intelligent initiative which occurred in an Indian area (the "Boruca" community), where the teachers of several neighbouring nuclei were able to produce completely original reading materials based on stories in the aboriginal languages:

an accomplishment that was later made official by the Ministry. In addition, the subjects discussed in the weekly or fortnightly meetings of nuclei coordinators and supervisors with the regional authorities ceased being fixed by the Regional Director, and were instead suggested by the nuclei's staff. All these small but significant changes, and above all the new and frequent communication between teachers in the nuclei, have begun to have beneficial effects on the quality of the education the children receive in those areas.

Finally, it is interesting to note that the newly-felt need for better communication and effective team-work has led in quite a few cases to modifying the boundaries of the school districts, which initially were found to be dysfunctional.

2. Shortcomings

Notwithstanding this basically good attitude on the part of both the teachers and the communities, a certain number of important factors have noticeably contributed to weakening the implementation process.

To begin with, the amount and the quality of information concerning the programme were clearly inadequate. The basic document mentioned above was indeed made known to all participants in the scheme, since it was used as the main document in the short introductory courses or seminars. But, out of the ten complementary project documents required, several were never produced, and others were too weak and indecisive to be of any real help to the teachers in the field. This was particularly regrettable in regard to Projects 3 and 5, i.e. those concerning the new administrative arrangements and the guidelines for effecting curricular change at the local level.

Then, whatever their quality, these documents were almost never circulated outside the nuclearized schools and a few Ministry offices: the rest of the system, including some senior officers, were scarcely aware of the purpose and substance of the programme. The experience thus became, in the general view, something comparatively marginal - and its potential for change was not really perceived.

The main shortcoming at the field level was, however, the inadequacy of the special training given to those who had actually to carry out the programme - teachers, coordinators and supervisors. Just a few sessions prior to the formal starting up date, conducted by a small group of senior officers of the planning sector of the Ministry with little

participation by upper levels of the hierarchy, were evidently not enough. The participants in the programme were undoubtedly initially enthusiastic and had a general idea of the purposes: but they did not possess the technical instruments required to make the change an unqualified success. They had no clear idea of the administrative implications of the nuclear concept, no tools for making significant changes in the curriculum, no training in group work, no technical abilities for preparing and developing definite projects. And the few elements that were included in the pre-change sessions were not properly developed through a sustained follow-up. The teachers had to make up for these failings with good will and common sense, but this was not enough to avoid many pitfalls and delays.

This lack of preparedness was particularly serious in the case of the nuclei coordinators - who were chosen, not for their personal and professional qualities, but merely due to the fact that they happened to be headmasters of the "central" schools of the nucleus. It must be said to their credit that for the most part they struggled courageously with the new responsibilities that had been thrust upon them. Often, however, they were quite at sea, at least for the first year or so, and sometimes one of the other headmasters or teachers happened to have stronger natural leadership qualities, leading to clashes of personalities in the group. And in a few cases, they were simply lacking in capacity to manage human relations, a fact that was not too serious in their own schools where they enjoyed formal authority, but which could not be disguised in the relationship of equals prevailing in the nuclei.

The inadequate elaboration of new administrative outlines was a major obstacle to success, since the participants in the programme within each nucleus had no definite guidelines as to what they were or were not entitled to do with respect to other members of the group. This was most obvious in the relationship between district supervisors and nuclei coordinators: the former were apt to see the latter as challengers to their accustomed position and authority, while the latter were impatient of the niggardly control sometimes exercised by the former. Conflicts arising from this situation hampered the smooth development of the nuclei.

As to the participation of the community, it was for the most part more formal than real. Although human contacts were on the whole rather good between teachers and parents or other members of the community, neither group were in the habit of cooperating in specifically educational

matters. Thus, the formal organization of mixed committees as required by the nuclear concept, when it existed, tended to be divided. Sometimes it was tainted by a traditional, paternalistic bias, where the teachers were the real leaders of such "community" associations. More often, it tended towards the equally traditional pattern of a means to obtain material support for the school, and some very good results came out of this line of action: but the expected feedback on specifically educational issues was not forthcoming in either case.

As may be perceived, all these shortcomings at the local level can be traced to a lack of clear leadership from the Ministry. Very few of its officers had a sufficiently definite idea of what should be done in order to direct and support the efforts of each individual nucleus' team of teachers; and those who did, were placed on the sidelines (mainly, in the Planning Directorate).

3. Failures

The shortcomings analyzed above did not by themselves represent insurmountable obstacles with respect to the main objective of the programme - namely, improving the quality of rural educational services. They were not present everywhere, nor to an extreme degree. Unfortunately, other aspects of implementation were almost totally neglected and concerned the extra inputs that were listed in the basic document.

- (a) Upgrading the quality of education required that the ordinary teachers' abilities in "special" fields like arts, sports and crafts should be complemented. It was proposed that each nucleus, or perhaps two adjoining nuclei, would gradually be assigned a small team of these special teachers, over a period of two or three years, starting with the larger nuclei. But nothing at all was done: none of the nuclei were provided with this extra staff.
- (b) The same holds true for other kinds of non-teaching educational personnel, basically "orientadores" (personal and vocational counsellors) and librarians: no one was appointed.
- (c) Some office staff - at least one secretary - were also supposed to be appointed in order to visit each school

weekly, to take care of registers and other administrative chores, thus helping to regularize school records as well as releasing teachers and headmasters from such time-consuming tasks. Some of the central schools were already provided with such secretarial services, but usually to such a small degree that they were not able to extend this aid to the satellite schools.

- (d) This lack of personnel was matched by varying degrees of failure in providing the corresponding physical resources: teaching aids, books and libraries, handicrafts and home-economics workshops, sports fields, transportation, typewriters and copying machines. In the cases where some of these needs were at least partly met, it was usually through local initiative and financial support: the budget of the Ministry did not foresee any funds for these ends. The only two exceptions were, first, the furnishing of small libraries, under a programme dating from 1975 and aimed at covering all schools, not only those in the nuclearization scheme; and secondly, the provision of basic science kits, also to all schools, which had started some years earlier with the support of Unesco and Unicef. But the libraries were too elementary and unfit for use by the community, and the science kits remained largely unused, owing to poor teacher preparation.

A last significant point was the failure to integrate the lower-cycle secondary schools into the nuclei surrounding them; or to establish any systematic cooperation between them and the schools of the neighbouring nuclei. The traditional separation between the primary and the secondary levels, which the Educational Development Plan had wanted to overcome, continues to this day as strong as before - even with a nuclearization programme.

In such circumstances, it is all the more remarkable that some nuclei should have succeeded in setting up a community library service, that a few others should have acquired electrical generators to serve some school activities, and that in most cases, the teachers should have organized their own workshops (improvised in ordinary classrooms) in order to produce

teaching materials. These facts show that the mere idea of nuclearization was able to motivate the teaching body - and highlight in contrast the neglect of Ministerial authorities in making use of such good attitudes. For it is obvious that, in the face of the prevailing lack of necessary inputs, there was not much that the teachers could do, even working as a team, to achieve the substantial improvement of educational outputs that was aimed at. Goodwill and enthusiasm can take things thus far and no more.

In the main, this situation does no more than reflect the traditional discrimination against primary education that was and still is customary in most of Latin America: secondary education centres are provided with facilities in a way that can be qualified as lavish compared to the skeletal provision for primary schools.

In the case of Costa Rica and of this particular programme, however, this is not the whole story. Since such a vast undertaking was allowed to be launched without any budgetary support, and consequently deprived of essential inputs, a realistic explanation for poor achievement has to include a low degree of involvement on the part of most Ministry departments. In fact, when considered at all by many of the senior Directors at Ministry headquarters, the programme was seen as no more than a makeshift arrangement of administrative rules, with little or no understanding of its deeper educational aims and needs. In addition, it came at a moment when the original, very strong drive towards administrative reform, which had started in 1972-73 with real participation at the lower levels, had been frustrated in 1974 by the sudden decision of a new Minister to change the whole structure of the top administrative levels. The nuclear concept was not directly affected, but it survived only as an isolated element of the previous situation, more or less disconnected from the main current of the Ministry's actions. That is why, for a couple of years the programme made no progress at all. It was finally initiated in the field in 1976, thanks to the stubbornness of certain officers at the central and regional offices, who succeeded to a certain degree in demonstrating that there was no other practical way of doing something useful for rural schools. But reluctant assent on the part of political authorities who had not participated in the preparation of the programme was not enough to enable it to be put into effect in budgetary terms. Sensing this, old Ministry hands were understandably not too eager to lend support to the programme.

Thus, in the end, it all depends on political will: a problem often neglected when planning at a technical level, but this does not detract from its decisive bearing on the final issue.

V. THE PRESENT SITUATION AND PROSPECTS

It may appear rather surprising that, with all these negative elements, the Costa Rica nuclearization programme has not faded away. On the contrary, in the eyes of all those who have actually worked on it, the scheme still looks attractive and deserving of every effort, in order not only to strengthen it where it exists, but also to go on extending it to the rest of the country. Such is in fact the prevailing view, around which even the highest authorities have rallied.

For some time now, there has been an internal arrangement in the Ministry, by which the Planning Directorate goes on with its studies concerning nuclearization, including the school mapping that should provide the physical basis for the expected extension of the programme, while, with the help of such studies, the Directorate having authority in the field (called "Acción y Servicio Docente" - a sort of Chief Inspectorate) carries out definite projects aimed at effecting limited but real improvements in nucleus after nucleus. At the present moment, for instance, the small task force assembled for this purpose is engaged in a series of actions intended to help the nuclei set up their own libraries open to students and the community: libraries that may be installed in the central school, or - as it becomes financially possible - in mobile units which serve several adjoining nuclei. To this end, periodic meetings and seminars are held with the local staff on subjects related to the use of libraries. Given the serious national financial crisis that now afflicts the country, this sort of action seems the only way to make small but concrete improvements towards larger goals.

However, the main impact on the prospects of the nuclearization programme comes at the moment from a much bigger administrative reform called "regionalization", the main lines for which were drawn up by the Ministry of Planning ("OFIPLAN"). This ambitious reform, which is just being implemented, is based on: (i) a belief that the central Government, even in such a small country, is unable to properly understand, and respond to, the needs of the different socio-economic situations to be found in different parts of the country; (ii) evidence of multiplicity of overlapping

geographical subdivisions that have gradually been set up by different ministries and public institutions; and (iii) the idea of integrated development, according to which joint action of multiple public agencies in each geographical area will have a much stronger impact than the sum of their individual endeavours.

The reform subdivides the country into five regions, whose boundaries cut across those of the traditional seven "provinces" which in fact are no more than a historical relic, alien to socio-economic realities. Each one of these regions is to be entrusted to a Regional Development Council made up of the regional delegates of each public agency. Then there are to be sub-regions or zones (22), micro-regions (120), and finally administrative districts (about 400) which are the only ones coinciding with the present territorial organization.

The Ministry of Education must, of course, conform to this general plan - although it is allowed to make three regions out of OFIPLAN's "central" region, which contains more than half the country's population. The new "sub-regions" are not very different in size from the Ministry's former 17 regions; the new "micro-regions" will be of roughly the same area as the present school districts, though their boundaries are considerably different; and the administrative districts, which are of long standing, have never been taken into account by the educational establishment. Obviously, the problem the Ministry now has to face is how to match the top-to-bottom scheme which lies behind OFIPLAN's rules, with the bottom-to-top concept that is essential to the nuclear organization.

In OFIPLAN's scheme so far only the regional level has been the object of attentive analysis, in the sense that its administrative implications have been thought out in some detail. The lesser jurisdictions are merely postulated as part of a logical set up, with as yet a very dim idea as to the way they should function. On the other hand, the Ministry of Education has at this point:

- (a) a well-developed idea about what the basic level (the nucleus) should be: an idea better-developed in its technical than in its administrative aspects, and only partially implemented;
- (b) a comparatively clear idea of the technical and administrative nature of its "regions" (in the pre-OFIPLAN sense), the implementation of which are rather advanced; and

- (c) an extremely confusing set of concepts about the intermediate "school-district" or supervisory level - which is nevertheless fully operational in the field, being the oldest of all these administrative structures.

This problem was first studied in July-August 1979, in a seminar held by the Ministry of Education with the participation of all its senior officers, all Regional Directors, a sample of the supervisory body and some principals and headmasters. It was not difficult to see that each administrative district would correspond in size roughly to one or two nuclei and it was also easy to perceive that this official recognition of an administrative instance more or less coinciding with the nuclei would tend to reinforce their identity, both technically and administratively. What is more difficult to decide is the role that should be played by the intermediate instances, the sub-regional/zonal officer and the micro-region/supervisor. From the point of view of the nucleus, this amounts to adding another hierarchical step that threatens to impose too heavy a superstructure - a fact that could nullify the new freedom springing from recognition of their personality at district level.

It was suggested at the seminar that, to avoid the excess of hierarchical steps, the Ministry could conform to OFIPLAN's scheme by organizing its data collection according to all their jurisdictions - but should not set up office at some of the intermediate levels.

The settling of this issue, however, affects the programme only externally. The main issue is, of course, the attainment of the major goal, the qualitative improvement of rural education. Several inter-related questions are involved here - and the solutions given to them will greatly depend on the results of the evaluation being carried out. A few points seem clear enough as from now:

- (a) The most urgent need seems to be to provide the nuclei with the specialized personnel foreseen at the beginning but never appointed. Such provision would greatly enhance the capabilities of the local teams to make in-depth changes in the contents and methodology of formal education, as well as to start effective programmes directed at the adult community - something that has virtually not been attempted so far. Two major variables will have to be taken into account: the

capability of the universities to provide trained personnel, and the ability of the Ministry budget-makers to set aside the necessary funds.

- (b) The budgetary appropriations should at the same time include yearly allowances in order to complete the physical facilities needed at the level of the nucleus, or perhaps of the administrative districts, so that the staff will be able to put into practice the new pedagogical methods they have acquired either through re-training or through recent experience.
- (c) Once these essential points are implemented in the regions already nuclearized, it is imperative that the programme be extended at a rather rapid rate to the rest of the country. Assuming that three or four "sub-regions" could start the programme each year, coverage of the entire country would demand between four and five years. Of course the Ministry by itself does not have the capacity for such a rapid expansion, but good use should be made of the experienced staff that has already been working in the four regions already nuclearized.
- (d) Finally, there will be - there is already - a great necessity for feed-back from the programme's actual experience. A regular series of seminars and workshops will have to be held, not only for the field staff of the nuclearized regions, but also for key people from all Ministry departments, who should be able not only to understand the programme but to assume their particular responsibilities in its respect.

VI. THE MULTI-LEVEL APPROACH

MULTI-LEVEL EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

by M.V. Mathur
President,
Indian Association for Educational Planning
and Administration,
New Delhi

I. INTRODUCTION

Planning and implementation are two sides of the same coin and are inter-dependent. Planning should be done at all levels where decisions need to be taken. Multilevel planning is basically an exercise in decentralization of planning and administration processes. In a vast country like India, this is not a simple process. It is not merely a question of establishing mechanisms for planning and formulating procedures and methodologies, but is essentially one of finding properly motivated, elected representatives of the people and well-trained professional personnel to organise the process. Hence, for various political, social and administrative reasons, a system of effective multilevel planning can only be adopted in a phased manner.

The development of the system of multilevel educational planning in India can be studied as a part of the overall development and interdependence of various sectors of development, since education is linked with many other sectors for the purposes of:

- (a) providing trained manpower;
- (b) educating the beneficiaries/producers of various facets of development programmes; or
- (c) Creating a general climate favourable to development.

India has progressed gradually from the initial stage of centralised planning in the earlier Five Year Plans to a "pilot stage" of multilevel planning during the Fourth and Fifth Five Year Plans, when some experiments were initiated in this direction. We are now moving towards a "consolidation stage" during the Sixth Five Year Plan when multilevel planning procedures are likely to be more firmly established. Hopefully this will ultimately lead to a "mature stage" of a fully-fledged and well-integrated multilevel planning process in the country.

It was in the First Five Year Plan (1951-56) itself that an experiment in decentralization of the planning process in the form of a "Community Development Programme" was introduced. Under this experiment, the village was the basic unit of planning but the intermediate levels of block, district and state were bypassed. The Second Five Year Plan started with ideas of "District Development Councils" and "Village Production Plans" but an integrated framework of planning in which the functions of all levels in the planning process were precisely defined and coordinated was lacking. The latter half of the Second Plan also saw a movement for "democratic decentralisation" and creation of "Panchayati Raj Institutions". During the Third Five Year Plan the Administrative Reforms Commission suggested that the planning machinery at the State and Central levels should be strengthened. The National Planning Commission issued detailed guidelines during the Fourth Five Year Plan for formulation of district level plans. During this Plan, a number of special sectoral programmes and some area plans like SFDA (Small Farmers' Development Agency), DRAP (Drought Prone Area Programme), CAD (Comprehensive Area Development), Tribal and Hill Sub-Plans, etc., were also introduced. During the Five Year Plan period (1978-83), a massive programme of rural block level planning was initiated.

From the above it is clear that each Five Year Plan has generated new thinking and opened up new vistas for planned development at various levels. However, our initial experiments in adoption of the system of multilevel planning in India suffered from the following drawbacks:

- (i) Lack of proper and functional arrangements to make decentralisation operational;
- (ii) Absence of well-defined spheres of action at different planning levels;
- (iii) Lack of public participation in the administrative system in the required degree;

(iv) Inadequate flow of information within departments and amongst agencies; and

(v) Lack of team spirit and group approach in working.

Particularly in the field of education, the planning process has not percolated below the district level except in one or two States. In some cases, district level planning has been conceived merely as disaggregating the targets fixed at the State level.

II. PRESENT POSITION

1. General Structure of Planning and Administration

As at present, the Indian Union consists of 22 States and 9 centrally administered territories. The States are semi-autonomous political entities and are administered by their elected representatives answerable to the legislature of the State. The Union Territories are administered directly by the Central Government through elected representatives. The division of power between the centre and the States is governed by the Seventh Schedule and Article 246 of the Indian Constitution which give three lists, namely, Union, State and Concurrent Lists. The Central Government has the power to legislate on the subjects given in the first and the State Government on those given in the second. Both Central and State Governments can legislate on subjects appearing in the Concurrent List, but in the event of the Central and State's law coming into conflict with each other, the Central law prevails.

An examination of these Lists show that States have considerable autonomy in matters of planning and development, and the administrative apparatus used to implement plans is of course controlled by the States. For the purposes of administration, the States and Union Territories are further sub-divided into districts. A district is headed by a Collector or Deputy Commissioner, who is a multipurpose functionary heading the district administration. All administrative development activities are done by or through him. (In larger States, a few contiguous districts are brought together to form a division headed by a divisional commissioner.) The districts are further sub-divided into taluks or tehsils for general administrative purposes and development blocks for planning and development purposes. In some States, Tehsil/Taluk and block boundaries coincide but in others there is more than one block in each taluk. Superimposed on these are the police areas, postal zones, etc. On the lowest rung are the municipalities and villages.

Thus, the politico-administrative system which has evolved in India during the last three decades makes it imperative to operate planning and development processes at a number of territorial levels. This system is also responsible for the emergence of the following four-tier multilevel planning system in the country:

1. National (sectoral-cum-inter-state/inter-regional)
2. State (sectoral-cum-inter-district/inter-regional planning)
3. District/metropolitan (Regional Planning)
4. Block (Area Planning).

The above general structure of planning and administration is equally applicable to the education sector, which, in operational terms, continues to be a State subject in spite of the fact that it was put on the Concurrent List. The role of the Central Government in the field of educational planning and administration is mostly of an advisory nature, a uniform pattern has not been enforced. This led to the development of heterogeneous systems and structures of education in the various States and Union Territories. At the State level for higher and technical sectors of education, the State as a whole is the unit for planning and administration and for school education, the district is in most cases the basic unit of administration. In a few States, elementary education is the responsibility of local bodies like Panchayats and Zila Parishads up to district and the lower levels. In most of the States/Union Territories, the District Education Officer is usually a kingpin in the administration of school education. Recently, for adult education programmes, a district level authority, namely, District Adult Education Officer, has also come into the picture. At the lower levels, i.e. Taluks and Blocks, there is an inspecting and supervisory agency primarily to take care of elementary education.

2. Planning Machinery

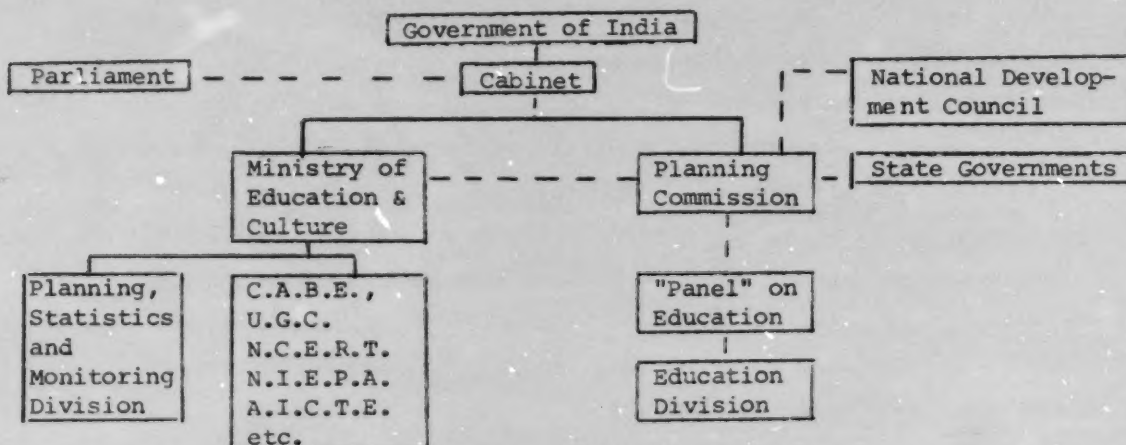
(1) National Level

At the national level, the Planning Commission is the chief planning authority in India, with the Prime Minister as its Chairman. The Commission not only formulates plans but also coordinates the developmental activities of the sectoral ministries at the Centre and in the States/Union Territories. The activities of the Commission are overseen by the National Development

Council (NDC) consisting of the representatives of the Commission, the Central Ministries and the constituent States. Though the Planning Commission is not a statutory body, it has, over a period of time, acquired prestige and status which help it to steer clear of over-politicization of planning and to resolve differences among Union Ministries and States in regard to allocation of limited resources to various sectors, programmes and projects. No major development programme is implemented without clearance from the Planning Commission.

The Commission has a number of divisions and one of them deals exclusively with education via a "Panel on Education" (consisting of leading experts in various sectors of education) to secure advice on all matters relating to educational development. It may also set up study groups and working groups on matters it considers necessary, for guidance in planning. The blueprints of the proposed plans are also placed before the Panel for consideration and comments.

The Union Ministry of Education and Culture is also associated with policy decisions at the highest level. It has a Planning, Statistics and Monitoring Division. The role of the Ministry of Education is more significant than it may appear to be in the organisational set up. All-India Organisations like the Central Advisory Board of Education (C.A.B.E.), University Grants Commission (U.G.C.), All-India Council for Technical Education (A.I.C.T.E.), National Council of Educational Research and Training (N.C.E.R.T.), National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (N.I.E.P.A.), etc., have been constituted by the Ministry of Education and Culture and it exercises considerable influence through these bodies. The following chart shows the educational planning structure at the National level:



(2) State Level

Although States are linked with the Planning Commission through the National Development Council, they have their own planning departments. These planning departments maintain contact with the Commission and coordinate efforts in their respect States/Union Territories for all Sectors including that of education. Educational plans are prepared by the departments concerned: Educational Planning Units exist in most of the States located either in the Education Secretariat or in Directorate of Education. In most cases the difficulty is that these planning units are not effectively manned by technically trained persons.

The State Planning Departments tend to play the same role with regard to State Ministries and Districts at the Planning Commission with regard to Central Ministries and States. This is not what was intended, as the States were expected to carry out far more rigorous planning and project formation using more detailed information than the Planning Commission does. Further, they were expected to relate their plans more intimately to the socio-cultural milieu and to lay greater emphasis on spatial and equity aspects of planning. Some States have also constituted Planning Boards to oversee the functioning of the planning departments, but in most cases these are discussion bodies and are not as "operational" as the Planning Commission at the Centre.

(3) District Level

Districts are not statutory or constitutional units but administrative units. Educational districts in most cases are coterminus with revenue, i.e. general administrative districts. There is generally a complex institutional set up at the district level. The role of the collector appears to be crucial, but it does not follow a uniform pattern in the various States. In a few cases he is basically in charge of law and order - development functions having been entrusted to local bodies. In some other States he oversees development work in general. In a few, like that of Jammu and Kashmir, he is made the pivot of all development activities and in fact the powers of the State as regards development have been delegated to the collector. Sometimes it is difficult to identify a well-established planning agency at the district level. Planning functions may be performed by a district planning officer under the overall charge of the collector. Sometimes, he is appointed only for the period of the formulation of five year plans.

In some States the district planning officer is placed under the control of "Zila Parishad". In certain others, special Committees are formed which are either headed by the collector, or convened by him with a State-level minister as head of the committees.

The planning done at district level by the district education officer is mainly for school education. It is really only successful in those areas where planning for other sectors is also done at the district level.

(4) Block Level

During the Fifth Five Year Plan, the Planning Commission carried decentralization of planning further down and advocated block level planning. The work of planning at this level is mostly looked after by the Block Development Officers, but these officers may prepare plans for the agricultural sector only. As for education, there is a supervisory agency for schools located at the block level, but none to look after planning work. Only in one State of the country, namely, Jammu and Kashmir, are there educational planning officers to assist tehsil education officers in planning at Taluk level. There is no planning agency below this level in education.

3. Planning Process

(1) National Level

The planning process involves formulation of three types of plans:

- (a) A long-term 15-20 years perspective plan, prepared essentially by the Planning Commission;
- (b) A Five Year medium-term plan, formulated jointly by the Planning Commission, the Central Ministries and the State Governments; and
- (c) Short-term Annual Plans prepared by the Central Ministries and the State Governments.

The various stages involved in the formulation of a Five Year Plan, which also includes the education sector, are briefly summarized below:

- (i) During the first stage, which begins about three years before the commencement of the new plan, studies are undertaken to examine the state of the economy and to identify the principal social, economic and institutional short-comings. Tentative conclusions reached as a

result of these studies help to formulate a general approach to the next Five Year Plan. These are submitted by the Commission to the Central Cabinet. They are then placed before the National Development Council which indicates the rate of growth and the broad priorities to be assumed for the purpose of further work on the preparation of the plan.

- (ii) In the second stage, an attempt is made to work out the broad details of the plan in the light of the tentative rate of growth indicated by the National Development Council. For this purpose, a number of working groups, composed of officers of the commission and the ministries concerned at the Centre, are set up. The State Governments are also advised to set up their own working groups which are expected to remain in informal contact with their counterparts at the Centre. While the studies of the various working groups are in progress, the Commission seeks the advice of leading non-official experts, through its various advisory Panels/Committees, on the broader aspects of policy and the approach to the formulation of the plan. This stage ends with the preparation of a Draft Memorandum which outlines the main features of the plan under formulation. The draft memorandum is presented to the Central Cabinet and then placed before the National Development Council (NDC).
- (iii) In the third stage work is directed towards the preparation of the Draft Outline of the Five Year Plan in the light of directions given by the NDC on the draft memorandum. The draft outline is an elaboration of the Memorandum and seeks to give the broad features of the various sectoral programmes and to spell out the principal policy measures needed to carry them out. The outline is commented upon by the States and the Central Ministries before it is submitted to the Central Cabinet and the NDC. The outline as approved by the Council is circulated for public discussion. It

is also considered by the Informal Consultative Committee of Members of Parliament and by Parliament as a whole.

- (iv) The fourth stage relates to the preparation of the final report on the Five Year Plan. The Planning Commission, in association with Central Ministries, holds detailed discussions with State Governments regarding their Plans. Estimates of resources likely to be available and measures for obtaining additional resources, as well as proposals for sectoral programmes of the States, are discussed both at political and official levels before conclusions are arrived at. In the light of points raised during all these discussions, the Planning Commission prepares a paper bringing together the principal features of the plan, the policy direction to be stressed and the issues which may require further consideration before the plan is finally drawn up. The paper is submitted to the Central Cabinet and the NDC. The final report on the plan is based on the conclusions reached in this paper. A draft of the final report is considered by the Central Ministries and the State Governments and it is then submitted for approval to the Cabinet and the NDC. Thereafter, it is presented to Parliament for discussion and approval.

For effective implementation of the Five Year Plan, annual development programmes are drawn up within the framework of the overall plan. These are included in the annual budgets of the Central and State Governments. Preparations of annual budgets also afford an opportunity to adjust the broad annual phasing indicated in the Five Year Plans.

The work of the preparation of an Annual Plan is undertaken in the Planning Commission in August or September each year. The different divisions of the Planning Commission, including education, carry out exercises to evolve a tentative picture of the task envisaged for the next year, progress in the current year and the total effort needed for the remaining period of the Plan. An exercise to establish the financial resources which could be made available for the Annual Plan is undertaken concurrently by the Education Division of the Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance.

The Planning Commission then communicates to each State general guidelines for formulation of the Annual Plan for the following year, also indicating provisional figures for central assistance.

The next stage consists of discussions with individual State Governments on their Annual Plan proposals in working groups in which representatives from the Central Ministries concerned also take part. The proposals of these working groups along with the Programme Advisor's comments are discussed in a meeting of the Planning Commission which is attended by the Chief Minister of the relevant State. In this meeting a final review is made of the State's Plan for the next year, the amount of Central assistance and the State's own financial effort.

In the past the Central Ministry had but a small role to play in plan formulation; now it plays a very effective role. For example, in the education sector, the working groups are mainly chaired by the Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Culture. The Planning Cell of the Ministry of Education has assumed an important role in plan formulation and evaluation both for medium and short term plans.

(2) State Level

A similar role to that of the Planning Commission at National level is performed by the Planning and Development Departments at the State level. The State Planning Boards largely function as advisory bodies. There is also a system of planning by working groups in which secretarial departments, the heads of departments and planning and finance departments are involved in plan formulation - be it medium or annual plans. The major decisions in the field of planning are taken at Cabinet level though the practice of a Cabinet Sub-Committee to look into the details is not uncommon. In some States, there are State Advisory Committees on Planning, consisting of elected representatives, while others have consultative committees for each of the development departments.

The detailed process of planning at the State level as followed in one of the States of India, namely, Jammu and Kashmir, is summarised below with particular reference to education sector:

- (a) The State Planning and Development Department also prepares an approach paper (on the lines of the national paper) which is considered and approved by the State Planning Board and Cabinet, particularly for preparation of Five Year Plans.

- (b) Guidelines for the preparation of draft plans are also received from the Planning Commissions by the department, concerned, including those on education.
- (c) Working groups for various sectors are also set up to prepare draft Five Year Plans. In the working group on education, there are representatives of the planning, finance, public works, social welfare and education departments, representatives of universities, Board of School Education and sometimes a few renowned educationists. But experience has shown that these working groups exist only on paper or become discussion bodies. The draft education plan is prepared by the Education Department on the basis of plans received from its various Directorates and organisations, e.g. School Education, Higher Education (Education Commissioner), Youth Welfare, Adult Education, Universities, Board of School Education, Directorate of Technical Education, Board of Technical Education, Arts and Culture Academy, Directorate of Libraries, Research and Museums, Autonomous institutions like the Sanik School and Regional Engineering College. The Plan for school building is prepared in collaboration with the State Public Works Department.
- (d) Draft plans are also received from district education Officers for various districts in respect of selected schemes of school education. The Education Department prepares its draft plans on the basis of these district plans for district level schemes and at their own level for other schemes. In the case of other education sectors plans are drafted mostly at the State level.
- (e) The draft plans from the various Directorates and organisations of the Education Department are consolidated and examined by the Education Secretariat with the help of its planning unit and then discussions are held with the heads of departments/agencies chaired by the Minister in charge of Education. On the basis of these discussions, the draft educational plan

containing detailed financial and physical targets, is prepared for all sectors, namely, general education, technical education and arts and culture.

- (f) This draft is discussed by the Education Department with the State Planning and Development Department where representatives of the Finance Department are also present. In this meeting the draft is finalised to form part of the general draft plan of the State for all sectors of the economy and submitted to the Planning Commission.
- (g) The Planning Commission holds discussions on the draft plan every year with the State representatives. A separate working group is set up for education in which representatives of State education, planning and financial departments also take part. Differences of opinion between the State representatives and the Central Governments' representative in the working groups, which mostly relate to amounts of finance, are taken up at programme adviser's level and if need be, at Chief Minister's level with the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission.
- (h) After receiving the views of the Working Groups and the Planning Commission, the State Planning Department conveys information on finance to the relevant department. The education department, like other departments, again undertakes the exercise of finalising the various schemes of annual plans in consultation with its Directorates and field agencies. In the case of district level schemes, the proportion accorded to each district is also worked out. At this stage, financial and other details are also prepared for inclusion in the State budgets. Comprehensive projects are formulated for new schemes.
- (i) Discussions are again held on this final draft in a meeting of representatives of the Planning and Finance and Education departments. In these meetings each and every scheme is examined at length for implementation

or review. It is followed by separate formal clearance of individual schemes by the Planning and Finance Departments. This formality is obligatory for every new scheme; it is not essential for continuing schemes.

- (j) On this basis, provisions are made accordingly in the Annual Budget which is approved by the State legislature.
- (k) The Planning Department finalises the plans of the various sectors and submits the final draft of the plan to the State Cabinet and after its approval to the State legislature.

After all the above formalities, the stage of plan formulation at the state level is complete and steps are taken to implement the plans. However, in the case of schemes which are not cleared during the aforementioned discussions, the process of finalisation continues throughout the year. As and when these schemes are finalised, formal government sanctions are issued by the Education Department. Schemes involving creation of posts require a separate procedure whereby the clearance of the Chief Minister/Cabinet has to be obtained through the General Department of the State. The Minister also periodically reviews the implementation of various schemes. The Planning Department with the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit undertakes continuous monitoring of plan implementation by requesting information through quarterly Progress Reports.

It may also be mentioned that in addition to the normal sectoral plans, there are separate plans for backward areas and communities.

(3) District Level

The planning process at the district level constitutes a very important element in multilevel planning. Actually, district level planning is conceived as a device which combines plan-formulation and plan implementation, but there have been only a few systematic attempts at district level planning which can be considered as successful experiments worthy of universal adoption. The examples of the State of Jammu and Kashmir, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu can be cited in this regard. In particular, the system of educational planning in the State of Jammu and Kashmir, which has been evolved over the last five years, can be considered as a successful experiment for general adoption or adaptation according to local situations. The main features of educational planning at the district level in this State are:

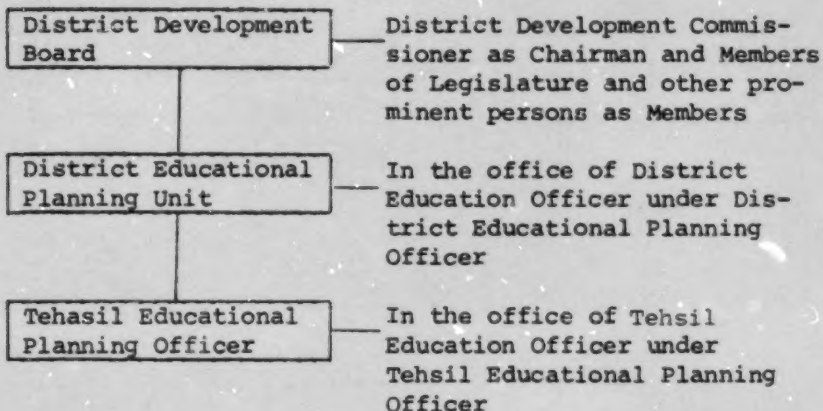
- (a) Programmes in various sectors of education have been divided into three:
- (i) State level schemes;
 - (ii) District level schemes;
 - (iii) District level schemes administered by the State level authorities but forming part of district expenditure

Schemes where more than one district is involved or benefits or for which there is no district level officer, are termed as State level schemes. Under the third category, the example of "orientation programme for teachers" can be cited. The budget shows this as part of district level expenditure but costs are incurred by the State Institute of Education which organises these courses.

- (b) District plans are concerned only with planning of the district level schemes. These schemes are again divided into two parts:
- (i) Schemes pertaining to expansion and rationalisation of educational facilities, e.g. opening and up-grading of schools, closure, shifting and amalgamation of schools; provision of additional staff and rational distribution of existing staff, etc.
 - (ii) All other schemes.

For schemes under the first category, long-term plans are prepared while for the second category, annual and five year plans are prepared.

- (c) The planning machinery up to district level for the education sector is as follows:



The District Development Board is the supreme official agency at the district level for coordinating planning and implementation of all district level schemes of various sectors of the economy. The District Development Commission is vested with the authority to oversee various departments having their officers in the district educational planning unit which carries out planning, statistics and survey tasks. The agency also maintains a very efficient information system to meet the requirements of planning, administration, monitoring and evaluation. The planning officers who assist District and Tehsil education officers are drawn from professional educational staff and are technically trained.

- (d) The process of preparing long-term plans for the provision of educational facilities at the school level in a district is given below:
- (i) Comprehensive educational surveys are conducted taking a cluster of houses as a basic unit.
 - (ii) On the basis of data collected through surveys and area maps, draft plans for provision of educational facilities are prepared in which almost all officers of the education department up to the district level and also from the State level take part. Guidelines for the preparation of these plans are supplied by the State Educational Planning, Statistics and Survey Unit.
 - (iii) These plans are based on a normative approach; the norms are standardised at the State level and no deviation is permissible at the district level. The "long-term perspective" for these plans is not based on "time horizons" but on schools required to be opened and upgraded in terms of particular norms. Opening of these schools depends on availability of funds, they can be opened in one year or phased over a period of more than 5 years in accordance with the availability of funds.

New plans are prepared according to a new survey after existing plans have been implemented, which usually takes 5 to 7 years.

- (iv) The draft plans so prepared are circulated for comment among the officers of the Education Department at District and State levels and also amongst public representatives and knowledgeable persons of the district.
- (v) After obtaining these comments, the plans are presented to the District Board for approval, the Board being the final authority in this respect.
- (vi) New schools envisaged by plans are opened according to relative priorities fixed with the help of an index which is worked out by multiplying the population of the area to be catered for by the school by the walking distance from the nearest school. Areas with a higher index are given priority. This index has helped to remove area imbalances in respect of provision of educational facilities.
- (e) Annual and Five Year Plans for all other schemes are prepared on the basis of guidelines sent by the State. Details in respect of these schemes are worked out at the District level within the amount earmarked for the schools. The planning schemes are seen by the State level officers before being submitted to the District Board for approval.
- (f) Funds for various schemes are earmarked and the district authorities are not allowed to change such allocations. Any deviation needs prior approval of the State Education Department which is usually given, if it is within the approved plan outlays.
- (g) Formal sanctions are usually issued before the start of the financial year or within a month of that date. No formal approval of planning and finance departments is required for the creation of posts under such schemes where norms are prescribed. In the case of locational planning, the district board is almost an independent authority and the state authorities cannot interfere.

- (h) The State Cabinet headed by the Chief Minister and the Secretaries to Government and Heads of various Departments participate in meetings of District Development Boards once or twice a year, to assess the progress made in implementation of plans. In addition, the District Development Boards meet about once a month to monitor the progress of implementation of the schemes and every district officer must submit a progress report.

District-level planning in Maharashtra has several interesting features:

- (a) A strong District Planning and Development Council exists in every district, although it has not been given statutory status.
- (b) In order to ensure that the financial allocations made available to each district for its five year or annual plan are utilized in the same district, the DPDCs have been given the freedom to recommend reappropriation of savings within the district itself, subject to certain limitations relating to programmes in the core sector.
- (c) A new procedure for release of grants is being followed to cut down delays, whereby the administrative department concerned with the provisions in the budget voted by the State legislature, will communicate directly with the officer responsible for implementing a scheme at the district level instead of channelling such releases through the heads of departments.
- (d) Orders have been passed by the State Government specifying that the district level officers are accountable to the DPDC for implementation of programmes at the district level.

(4) System of Coordination

The Planning Commission at the national level, planning departments at the State level and the office of the district collector at the district level, perform the main functions of coordination of inter-departmental planning activities. These agencies also achieve horizontal coordination between official and non-official agencies through various Boards, Groups and

Committees, e.g. National Development Council at the national level, State level and District Development Board/Committee at the district level. The effectiveness of the process of coordination between official and non-official agencies depends upon these committees and boards, but it has usually been seen that planning departments are more effective in the process of coordination than various Boards/Committees.

This general structure at various levels also helps the education sector to develop linkages and coordination with other development departments, but nevertheless experience has shown that problems of lack of coordination continue to exist and slow down the pace of development. Such problems have the following dimensions:

- Lack of coordination within various sectors and agencies of education;
- Lack of coordination of education sector with other sectors of development

Lack of coordination in the education sector can, among other reasons, be assigned to the following:

- (a) Multiplicity of agencies within education (large number of directorates for various sectors and types of education) without any clear and effective system of coordination;
- (b) Inadequate flow of information between various levels and sectors of education;
- (c) Lack of effective system of integrated planning at various levels since every sector of the economy prepares plans independently;
- (d) Lack of perception by functionaries as to their own as well as one another's roles;
- (e) Lack of team spirit and group approach in carrying out work.

However, in certain States an effective mechanism has been developed to tackle the problem of lack of coordination - both vertical and horizontal - within the education sector and with other sectors of the economy, though these mechanisms cannot be generalised. For example, in Jammu and Kashmir (J & K) State, a number of steps have been taken to coordinate the education sector with other development sectors as follows:

(a) Linkage of non-formal education with Handicraft training

In the Kashmir Division of the J & K State, when Handicrafts Training Centres were started, most of the primary schools were rendered defunct because children left the schools to join these centres where in addition to a stipend of Rs.3/- per day, they also receive training. The State Handicrafts Department worked out a scheme of non-formal education for children and adults, together with the education department who evolved special curricula around the craft in which the child is being trained. Part-time centres of non-formal education for children up to 14 years and adult education centres for the 15+ age group have been opened. Two hours in the morning in these centres are used for imparting education. It is a successful joint venture of the education and handicraft departments in the State.

(b) Health Guide Scheme in collaboration with Health Department

This scheme has been effectively organised on a pilot project basis by the health and education departments. The health department trains selected teachers of an area in medical and health education for a period of about two months. These teachers are provided with a medical kit and they become health guides in a "barefoot-doctor" scheme. In the local language they are called "Rahbari-i-Sehat". These teachers are paid an honorarium of Rs.50/- per month by the health department.

(c) Linkage of adult education programme with developmental agencies

The State has developed a programme of adult education linked with development departments/activities at various levels, as is clear from the following examples:

- Coordination with the State Council for child welfare

The J & K State Council for child welfare organises Balwadis (Child Care Centres) in the State. Every Balwadi also organises one Mahila Mandal (Women's

Forum) for mothers and other ladies interested in health education related to nutrition, sanitation, hygiene, child care and family welfare and also imparts training in sewing and cutting. In coordination with the Council, these Mahila Mandals were converted into Adult Education Centres. The Bal-Sevikas (Girl Volunteers) of these Centres function as part-time instructors.

- Linkage with Applied Nutrition Programme

Mahila Mandals (women) and Youth Clubs (men) are organised under the applied Nutrition Programme at the block level. With the cooperation of the State Nutrition Officer, a component of adult education has been successfully introduced in these Centres.

- Linkage with Agriculture Department

In one of the districts of the State, an Adult Education Programme has been effectively implemented by the education department in collaboration with the Information and Agriculture departments. These three departments have adopted a collective approach in planning and implementation of adult education programmes around the agricultural activities of farmers.

The State Government has taken the following measures to achieve coordination and facilitate linkage of adult education programmes with development departments and activities at various levels:

- At State level, a "State Board of Adult Education" has been set up with the Chief Minister as the Chairman and Chief Secretary, Planning Commissioner, Vice-Chancellors of universities, Directors of Radio and T.V., Director of the Information Department and Secretaries of Departments of Agriculture, Horticulture, Animal Husbandry, Social Welfare, Cooperatives and Panchayats. This Board is the chief policy-making body in the field of adult education. It also undertakes periodic appraisal of the programme at State level.
- There is also a "Steering Committee" at the State level with the Planning Commissioner as Chairman for quick

clearance of plans and projects under the adult education programme.

- At district and block levels, there are coordination committees which are headed by the District Development Commissioners and Assistant Commissioners (Development) respectively. All the district and block level functionaries of the development department are members. In addition, there are a few members of the State legislature.
- There are also village level committees where adult education centres are functioning. The main functions of these committees are to create awareness about the programme in the village and to ensure good enrolment and attendance and day-to-day supervision.

(d) General system of coordination with various sectors of education

- At State level, the education secretariat acts as a coordinator by means of the processes of planning and administration among the various sectors and agencies within the education department. The planning, statistics and survey unit provides assistance in this regard. The secretariat also makes efforts to coordinate the education department with other development departments.
- At the district level, there are a number of district level officers in education, e.g. D.E.O. (Boys), D.E.O. (Girls), District Youth Welfare Officer, District Science Supervisor, District Adult Education Officer, District Institute of Education, etc. The District Education Officer (Boys) is entrusted with the responsibility of planning and coordination of educational activities of all other agencies providing secondary education in the district. He is assisted by a District Educational Planning and Statistics Unit headed by a District Educational Planning Officer.
- At the Tehsil level, the Tehsil Education Officer (Boys) is responsible for planning and coordination of various schemes of school education at elementary

level. He is assisted by a Tehsil Educational Planning Officer.

III. MAIN ISSUES AND FUTURE TASKS

It is evident that the process of multi-level planning in the country is still in the stage of evolution. There are a number of issues and future tasks which emerge out of the present situation.

1. Identification of levels of planning

Apart from the national level, the State is the only level which is built into the constitution, as a unit of political process, decision-making and planning. Among the other levels, only the district stands out as a significant unit of planning. Educational planning levels should be co-terminus with levels of administration, which in addition to national and state levels, are district, tehsil, taluk, block, and institution. At present, planning has reached the district level, but should go below this and ultimately the institutional level should be the primary unit of planning and administration. It is on the basis of institutional plans that block, district and state plans should emerge.

The second important issue is with regard to planning areas, particularly at district, tehsil and block. The unit of planning at these levels in education should by and large be co-terminus with the unit of general planning and revenue administration. At the district level, the areas of educational and revenue districts are generally common in the country but large variations occur at tehsil and block levels. Even within general administration and planning, the jurisdiction of tehsils and development blocks cross each other's boundaries. In educational planning, either block or tehsil/taluk should be adopted as a unit of planning and should be co-terminus with the general planning or revenue jurisdiction of the area. This would not only facilitate easy flow of information, but also help in linking educational activities with other developmental activities.

2. Involvement of the Community

Apart from involving the local levels of the decentralized administrative apparatus, it is necessary to actively seek the cooperation and support of the local community at large. There are several examples of successful attempts in this regard, e.g. the School Improvement Programme in Tamil Nadu under which the requirements of schools in a district are listed and support

is sought in cash and kind from members of the community. Also, there are instances of some leading business houses taking an interest in programmes of rural development and educational expansion in States like Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Bihar, etc.

3. Normative Approach

Educational planning at district or lower levels cannot be successfully adopted without having long term plans based upon a normative approach. Disaggregation of State level targets into district targets or district targets into block level targets without a proper basis cannot be accepted as a "decentralized system of planning". Development and maintenance norms for provision of educational facilities should first be evolved at the State level for various areas - on the basis of surveys, financial implications, administrative and political implications, and clear-cut guidelines for their adoption or adaptation at various levels in a State should be laid down so as to avoid any confusion.

On the basis of these norms, the total requirements of all the areas in terms of physical, financial and staff needs should be worked out, and plans up to district level prepared. The share of the district in the State plan, and that of the block in a district level plan, should be determined on the basis of total requirements of the area according to norms included in the plans. This will help not only in removing regional imbalances but also avoid any subjectivity in allocation of funds to lower levels. This approach also involves the participation of field staff and the local community at the stage of plan formulation.

4. Sound Information System

The other important factor for successful adoption of a system of multi-level planning in education is a sound management information system which should meet the data requirements of planning, administration, monitoring and evaluation. This is one of the factors responsible for the comparative success of multilevel planning of education in the State of Jammu Kashmir. This system has not only improved the quality of data but also eliminated the time-lag in finalisation of data at various levels of planning. Forms for collection of information need to be very carefully evolved without any duplication in items or forms used for collection and consolidation of data.

5. Schematic Divisions

In order that multilevel planning in education should be successful, it is essential that the various schemes for educational development should be prepared according to the level at which their plans should be formulated and implemented.

Some basic principles can be suggested when undertaking this exercise, e.g.:

- (a) Schemes should be identified with the level which will benefit from the same, e.g. primary school may be a village level scheme, college improvement a district level and university education a State level scheme.
- (b) Only those schemes where more than one of the lower levels will benefit or will be involved in implementation should be put at a higher level.
- (c) There may be multilevel schemes, e.g. "Scheme of Sports and Games" may have provision for organisation of inter-district and intra-district competitions. The former will be a State level outlay and the latter a district level outlay.
- (d) Similarly, some schemes should be formulated at a high level and implemented at a lower level, e.g. organisation of in-service teacher training programmes for school teachers by the State Institute of Education. Here the latter institute will organise the programmes and the expenditure on TA/DA of teachers will be met out of district funds. This scheme can be shown as part of a district plan but funds disbursed by the State level authorities.

The above grouping of schemes should be arranged after taking into account the situation prevailing in each area. It should be ensured that maximum decentralisation takes place and that levels/areas do not interfere or overlap.

6. Effective Coordination

Coordination signifies team work and unity of efforts. It is a conscious and continuous process in any collective undertaking.

The problem of coordination between various agencies responsible is mainly faced during implementation. Coordination at higher levels is easier and relatively simpler to ensure, but cannot succeed unless coordination at lower levels is achieved.

The problem of coordination at different levels as such must be considered separately. The following are some suggestions in this regard:

- (a) The Committee approach should be followed for coordination at various levels but the functions and role of these committees should be clearly laid down.
- (b) At the State level, there should be an effective co-ordination machinery representing planning, finance, education, administration and other departments for speedy sanction of schemes and their periodical review.
- (c) A system of integrated district level planning should be followed particularly, otherwise district level co-ordination cannot be achieved.
- (d) An effective linkage between development and education is only possible if development agencies include an educational component in their own programmes. They should use the school as a base for socio-economic extension activities in villages.
- (e) The roles, duties and functions of various functionaries within the education department and those functionaries in other departments who are concerned with educational planning and administration, should be clearly laid down, so as to avoid any confusion or overlapping.
- (f) Adoption of an effective management information system to meet information needs for vertical and horizontal levels of planning and administration.

7. Adoption of a Decentralized Planning System via a phased programme

Even if there is no system of multilevel planning for other sectors of the economy, decentralized planning can be adopted in the education sector since it already has a network of educational administrative machinery at all levels. To start with, only a few schemes may be taken up. The exercise of school mapping is a must for educational planning.

8. Manual for Planning at various levels

It is also necessary that a manual be prepared to provide detailed guidelines for formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of

educational plans at various levels. It should also contain the role and responsibilities of various functionaries and indicate possibilities of coordination with other development departments.

9. Selection and training of personnel

Educational planning is a technical function. At whatever level it is proposed to introduce the system of planning, it is essential that a basic minimum staff to deal exclusively with this subject should be provided to assist the senior education officers responsible for educational planning. The staff for planning should be of adequate status, having experience in education and planning and be given training in planning and statistical techniques. The orientation of administrative officers is equally essential. To start with, the national level organisation could take the initiative, but ultimately, such facilities in training should be provided at State level.

As a long-term measure, the subject of educational planning and statistics should form an essential part of the curricula of teacher training institutes. At a higher level, separate courses in educational planning and management should also be started by the universities.

The ultimate objective should be to make training of educational administrators in educational planning and management as essential as the training of teachers for classroom instruction.

Concluding Observation

The illustrations of decentralized educational planning and administration presented in this paper highlight the need for:

- (a) Improved data base from ground level upwards.
- (b) Better analysis and linkages between needs of "development" and role of educational services.
- (c) Treating education ("formal", "non-formal" and "continuing") as a key sector in development planning.
- (d) Emphasis in providing for the basic educational needs of the community (elementary education, vocational schools and adult education) together with advanced institutions of science and technology for training high level manpower.
- (e) Providing well-trained professional staff for manning educational planning, monitoring, and administrative

services who should be able to integrate educational plans with those of other development sectors.

- (f) Generating adequate resources, nationally and internationally, to effectively implement programmes of educational development to lay the foundations of self-reliant economies.

INTEGRATED PLANNING IN TANZANIA

- THE 1972 DECENTRALISATION AND THE 1975 VILLAGE ACTS

by Omar R. Mapuri
Chief Planning Officer
Ministry of Education
Zanzibar

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally, changes are made with a particular objective in mind, usually to meet a felt need in society, which can be either social, economic or political in nature. The desired change can, however, cut across the boundaries of all these areas. The decentralisation of the administrative and planning machineries in Tanzania is an example.

Although the subject of this paper is integrated planning, it would not be possible to omit issues pertaining to administration. After all, administration and planning are inter-dependent and overlap to the extent that it is impossible to talk of one without the other. Therefore, the administrative aspects of the 1972 Decentralisation will also be discussed in this paper.

It must also be pointed out that the description in this paper covers only the Mainland part of Tanzania. Zanzibar, the autonomous part of the United Republic, would require a separate description, because the 1972 Decentralisation and 1975 Village Act, the major centres of interest for this paper, do not operate in Zanzibar.

II. BACKGROUND

Tanzania is a vast and ecologically varied country where a centrally planned system of government would make little practical headway. This is particularly true since the country has adopted a development strategy which stresses integrated rural development and the encouragement of popular participation in its planning and implementation.

A number of attempts were made after the Arusha Declaration of 1967, to direct more attention towards rural development and popular participation, within the framework of a centralised system. These attempts, however, met with little success and there was a general feeling within the Party and Government machineries that there was need for a reform in the administrative structure, in order to eliminate the discrepancies of the centralised system. After a series of systematic discussions at all levels of the administrative and planning machinery, the Government called in McKinsey & Co. (an American firm of management consultants) in 1970. Under the guidance of a presidentially appointed consultative committee, the firm studied the situation and put forward recommendations for a decentralised system, which were later adopted by the Party, with the necessary amendments.

III. CAUSES FOR CHANGE

The causes for the change from a centralised to a decentralised system in Tanzania can be broadly classified into three areas, namely, social, economic and political.

1. Social Causes for change

Tanzania's culture is still rather diverse. In some areas, for example, the local people placed emphasis on the study of their religious faith instead of formal secular education and in such localities, school enrolment ratios were usually very low. Any effort to increase educational coverage required special approaches different from those in other localities.

Also, before decentralisation, social inequalities between men and women took different forms in different parts of the country. In some parts, women were denied by their cultural norms any right to education, be it formal (girls in schools) or non-formal (adult education). In yet other parts, traditional taboos forbade women to eat such nutritious food-stuffs as eggs, meat, etc. Social problems varied in both nature and extent between different regions so that different localised strategies were required to solve them.

2. Economic Causes for change

Tanzania has a marked internal variation in her geographical characteristics - especially in altitude, rainfall, soils and vegetation. This variation in the natural environment inevitably causes heterogeneity in land-using activities, such as crop and animal production, which dominate the country's

regional economies. Areas which have not yet been settled and developed will possess markedly different potentials for development. For this reason, economic development plans prepared on the initiative of the central government are likely to be unsatisfactory in both content and implementation.

Also, a poor country like Tanzania that is committed to improving the standard of living of her people, particularly those living in rural areas, has to look for ways and means of making full use of all her resources. In many developing countries, human resources are usually overlooked. But in Tanzania, these resources are highly valued, and are contributing a lot towards social and economic development. In most construction projects in villages, the government provides the materials and the villagers provide labour. This strategy has enabled the government to extend basic socio-economic necessities such as schools, dispensaries, water supply, etc. to the people at a much faster rate than anybody had expected.

For this kind of system to work smoothly, there had to be some kind of reorganisation of responsibilities between the government and the people at village level.

3. Political Causes for change

Prior to independence in 1961, political power was in the hands of a few colonial administrators. The masses of the people had no power at all and this situation lingered on even after independence. The regions, districts and villages were acting mainly as receivers and implementors of Party and government decisions. They had very few participatory rights in decisions that affected their own lives. It was only in the post-Arusha Declaration period that actual political participation of the masses of the people at different levels was brought into the regular working of both Party and government. Independence to the general public meant redistribution of political power to enable the regions, districts and villages to decide and plan their own development programmes. People at different levels would be accountable for the failure or success of their own development projects. This arrangement facilitates efficiency and effectiveness of administrative performance.

Another reason for change was the need to increase political consciousness amongst the people. They now know their political rights and duties too. It is no longer feasible to think of a situation in which

decisions affecting a particular group of people will be made without their participation. In fact, the Party constitution, amongst other Party and government documents, safeguards the right of people to participate in making decisions which affect their own development programmes.

IV. MAIN AIM OF THE REFORM

The major aim of decentralisation was to institutionalise an area-based planning system with in-built participation through the creation of a unified and effective system of coordination and control at regional and district levels. This was backed by the decentralisation of manpower and financial resources from the centre and the integration of representative bodies into the planning process at lower levels.

The reform had 4 major areas of concern:

- (a) The redistribution of powers between levels and branches of government;
- (b) The reallocation of resources between the same;
- (c) The improvement of communications between levels of government to create a more effective and democratic planning process;
- (d) Complementary reforms at the centre.

Charts 1 and 2 show the former centralised and the present decentralised systems respectively.

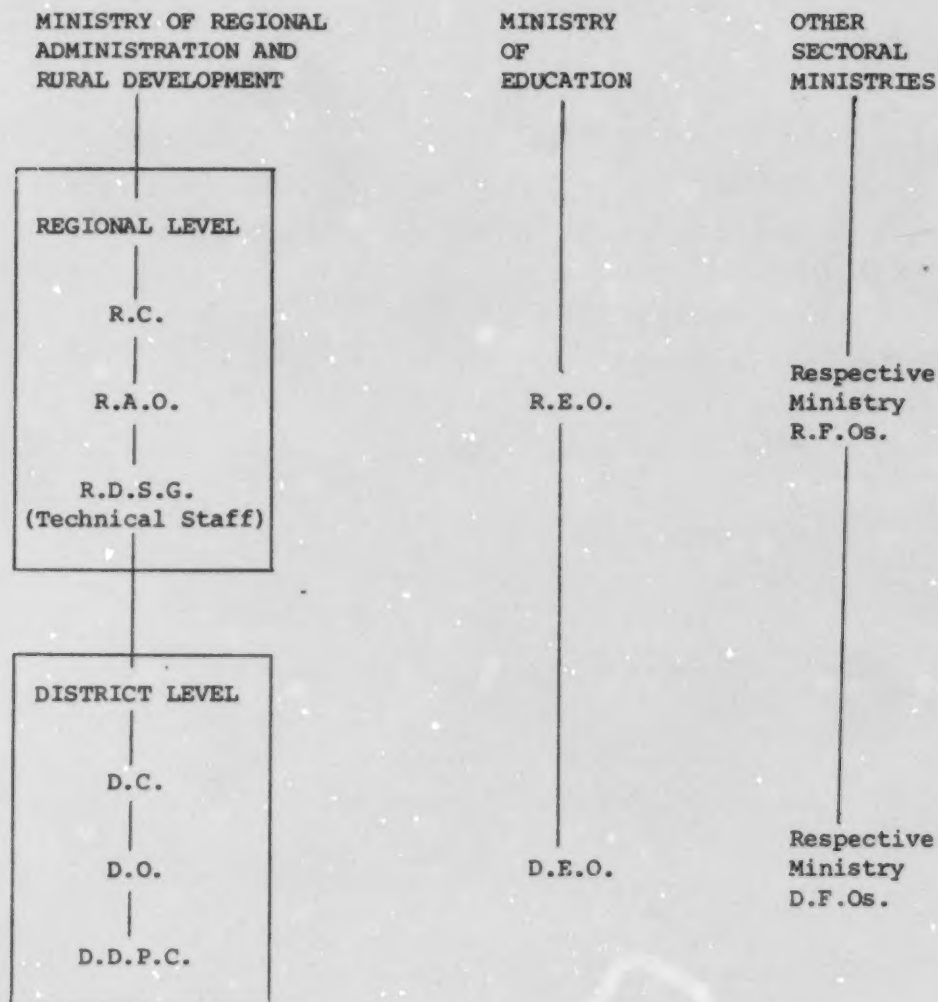
V. INTRODUCTION OF THE CHANGE

President Nyerere stated that the aim of the Arusha Declaration and subsequent Party documents was to distribute power from the centre to the regions, districts and villages, and to do this a number of prior arrangements had to be made.

1. Initial Arrangements

These included the new structure of the administrative system (see Chart 2) and designation of offices. Then, people who had the potential to fill the new posts were selected from different ministries (the majority were teachers from the Ministry of National Education) and parastatal organisations, to attend briefing courses, some of which lasted for several months. The participants were not assured of appointment to any particular post, but were continuously assessed so as to try to determine who might possibly fit where. On completion of the course, all returned to their former jobs.

Chart 1. The Former Centralised System

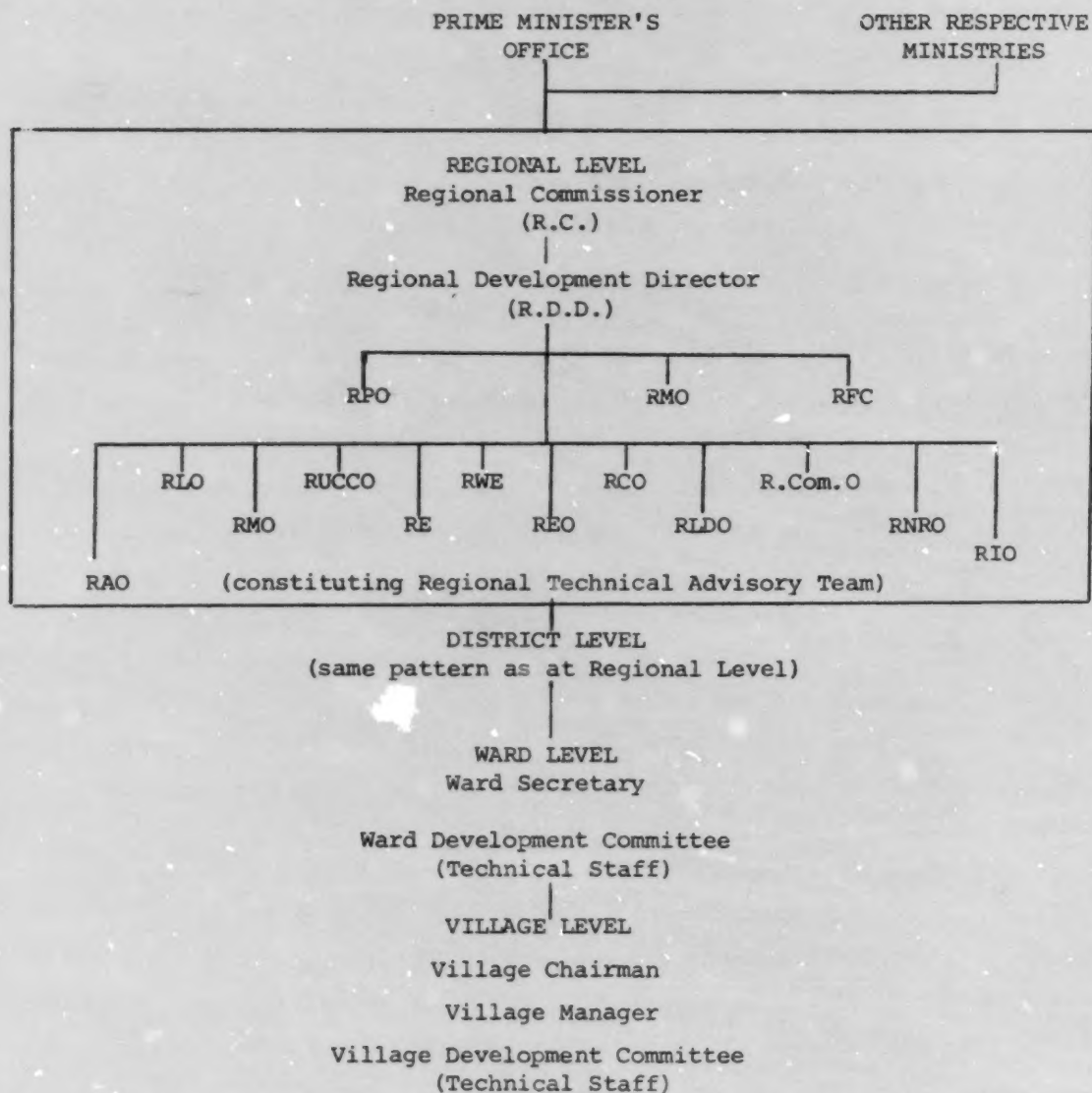


Key:

R.C. : Regional Commissioner
R.A.O. : Regional Administrative Officer
R.E.O. : Regional Education Officer
R.F.Os. : Regional Functional Officers
R.D.S.C.: Regional Development Sub-Committee

D.C. : District Commissioner
D.C. : District Executive Officer
D.E.O. : District Education Officer
D.F.Os. : District Functional Officers
D.D.P.C.: District Development Planning Committee

Chart 2. The Present Decentralised System



ABBREVIATIONS:

RPO : Regional Planning Officer	MMO : Regional Manpower and Mang. Officer
RAO : Regional Agricultural Officer	REO : Regional Education Officer
RLO : Regional Livestock Officer	RCO : Regional Cultural Officer
RMO : Regional Medical Officer	RLDO : Regional Land Develop. Officer
RUCCO : Regional Unjamaa and Coop. Officer	R.Com.O : Regional Commercial Officer
RE : Regional Engineer	RNRO : Regional Natural Resource Officer
RWO : Regional Water Engineer	RIO : Regional Industrial Officer
RFO : Regional Financial Controller	

Some of the participants were later appointed to the regional and district posts established as a result of the new arrangement. For example, some were appointed as Regional Development Directors (RDD) - a new office designated as equivalent to that of Principal Secretary of a government ministry in terms of both salary and office duties, while others were appointed to the post of District Development Director, also a new office. However, not all the participants of the decentralisation course were appointed to new posts. Some remained in their old jobs.

2. Creation of Posts and Salary Scales

When decentralisation was launched in 1972, there were certain posts which carried high salaries, i.e. those of the Regional Development Director, the Regional Financial Controller, the Regional Manpower and Management Officer, and the Regional Planning Officer, with their corresponding counterparts at district level. Besides their financial advantages, these posts are very influential. If an officer who belongs to any of the above-mentioned four categories is transferred from the regions or districts back to a post at the centre, he reverts to his original salary. But the salaries of the sectoral functional officers in the regions and districts, like the Regional Education Officer, the Regional Agricultural Officer, etc. and their corresponding counterparts at district level (see Table 2) are not affected by such transfers.

The personnel appointed to different offices in the decentralised system were given a trial period of two years. Towards the end of this period, and thereafter, officers who proved incapable and inefficient were withdrawn from their jobs, and given other duties elsewhere. This exercise was a type of built-in evaluation of the working of the decentralised system.

3. Timing of the Reform

Decentralisation became effective in 1972, but it is not possible to say that the decentralisation process has ceased because it involves a dynamic society where one change precipitates several other changes. For example, in 1975, the Village Act was passed which stipulates that the villages should have powers to plan and administer most of their development programmes. Also, in order to take decision-making power as close to the people as possible, new regions and districts are being formed from time to time. Decentralisation has in fact become a continuous process in Tanzania.

So long as societal needs become apparent, decentralisation of some powers in one form or another will continue.

VI. MAIN FEATURES OF THE REFORM

Before discussing the features of the new system, it would be useful for the purposes of comparison to outline the features of the old system.

1. Features of the old system (see Table 1)

- (a) The Regional-Commissioner and the District Commissioner were the heads of government at regional and district levels respectively, by virtue of their being Party Secretaries in their respective areas. But in practice, they did not have full control over the various sectoral ministries' administrative and technical staff in their areas.
- (b) The Regional Development Sub-Committee (RDSC) and the District Development Planning Committee (DDPC), despite having various technical staff as members, were virtually non-functional, as most of the planning activities were carried out by the sectoral ministries' regional and district staff, who reported directly to their respective Ministry Headquarters in Dar-es-Salaam. The completed plans passed through the RDSC and DDPC just as a matter of formality.
- (c) Due to the practice of planning in isolation and lack of coordination between the various sectors, there were no inter-sectoral linkages in the development plans, and in many cases, there was duplication of work.
- (d) The formal structure ended at the district level.
- (e) As regards financial allocations, the regions and districts had no influence. Financial expenditure in regions and districts was directly controlled from the sectoral ministries' headquarters in Dar-es-Salaam.

2. Features of the new system (see Table 2)

- (a) The Regional Commissioner (RC) being the Party Secretary at the regional level, is the political head of

all government activities in the region just as the Minister is in a sectoral ministry. The Regional Commissioner is now supported by an executive head of all government activities in the Region - the Regional Development Director (RDD). The RDD has full control over the staff of regionally-based technical departments of the government, much as a Principal Secretary has over divisions within a ministry. The regional technical staff now report directly to the RDD (with only copies to the Principal Secretaries) except for a few matters pertaining to national issues, e.g. Secondary and Higher Education, which are still centrally planned. Ministries now play only an advisory role at sub-national levels.

- (b) The area planning teams are now fully functional as all area technical staff physically work together in the production of integrated area plans instead of isolated sectoral plans.
- (c) The formal structure has been extended right down to village level - i.e. to the people. In line with the Party Guidelines of 1971, that, for people who have been under slavery and colonialism, development must also mean liberation and the power to manage their own affairs, in 1975 the government decentralised power further through the creation of village government. The main organs of village government are the Village Assemblies. Every resident of a village who is eighteen years or over is a member of the Village Assembly. The executive arm of the Village Assembly is the Village Council which consists of 25 members elected by the Village Assembly. Furthermore, in order to carry out its activities, each Village Council has 5 committees, consisting of 5 members each. The 5 committees of the Village Council are Finance and Planning; Production and Marketing; Education, Culture and Social Services; Defence and Security, and Communication and

Works(1). The functions of every Village Council are to undertake any activity for the economic and social development of the village; to plan, coordinate and assist the residents of the village engaged in agriculture, forestry, and other industrial activities, to encourage the residents to undertake and participate in communal enterprises; and to participate in economic enterprises in cooperation with other Village Councils. In order to perform these functions, the Village Councils, on behalf of the Village Assemblies, have powers to raise

(1) Editor's Note:

Details are given in the paper by M. Kinunda, "The Tanzanian Primary School Reform - Expectations and Realities", Paris, IIEP, 1980.

The relevant sections are as follows:

The Finance and Planning Committee has the responsibility of establishing development plans for farming, livestock, settlements, dispensaries, small scale industries, etc. as determined by the village council. The initial drafts of village annual plans are discussed, scrutinized and revised at different administrative levels, starting with the village through the ward, district, region and the Prime Minister's office to the national level. The village's sources of revenue consist principally of grants given by the government, levies on marketed produce and surplus from communal farms and other co-operative ventures such as the village shop, flour mill and carpentry workshops. With the abolition of co-operative unions and primary societies in 1976, now the whole village becomes a cooperative society responsible for both the production and marketing of its products.

The Education, Culture and Social services committee has to ensure that all children and adults in the village are provided with an opportunity for basic education which responds to the needs of the village and the nation at large. It has to promote "kindergarten" or nursery schools, and ensure that adults and children receive further education and training, particularly with the objective of generating village skills in various trades/crafts, bookkeeping, etc. It has to cooperate with the district education office in, for example, acquiring newspapers, books, films and in inviting speakers. It is involved in the assessment and selection of villagers for further training and education in institutions such as the vocational training centres, the cooperative college, folk development colleges, etc.

their own funds, engage personnel, and make their own laws. The Government has in the meantime introduced certain "change-agents" and provided the villages with the necessary personnel (e.g. the Village Managers who are heads of the Village Councils) to carry out (village) functions. While such personnel are recruited and paid by the Government (until the villages are able to shoulder the responsibility for themselves), they are completely answerable to their respective Village Councils for their performance. Over 90% of the villages have already established their own governments, in the form of Village Assemblies and Councils.

It is obvious from the foregoing that villages, just like cooperatives, enjoy much more freedom than the higher sub-national levels which still feel the grip of central control because of financial dependence on the Government. The villages initiate plans, and implement their development projects, which gives them courage to plan without undue restrictions from above, and renders them responsible for their own development. It is only those village projects which require external assistance (from the Government) that undergo scrutiny at the various levels, otherwise district approval is enough for a village project to be implemented. The district sees to it that the village programmes are within Party and Government policies, and coordinate the activities of various villages.

- (d) Regions are now responsible for 40% of Tanzania's total development expenditure. Regional expenditure is now under the direct control of the regional authorities themselves.
- (e) Communications between levels of government have been improved and a more effective and participatory democratic planning process created. Party bodies (elected councillors) have been integrated into the process, so as to ensure effective representation of the people.

- (f) In order that the decentralised system should work, some other changes had to be made. They include functional changes in Government ministries and re-distribution of power. Here the Office of the Prime Minister was created to coordinate and oversee the workings of the regions on the one hand, and sectoral ministries on the other.

Some ministries were reorganised at the Centre. For example, the Ministry of National Education was administratively reorganised at the centre in 1974 so as to maximise efficiency. There was a re-distribution of functions in different sections, e.g. the Director of Primary Education is no longer supposed merely to instruct the regions what to do. Instead he receives the decisions, plans and reports from the regions regarding primary school education, acts as a national coordinator of the proposals received and gives professional guidance.

VII. ACHIEVEMENTS

In addition to the self-evident achievements outlined in Section VI.2., there have been considerable developments at village level, particularly in the fields of education, sanitation, water supply, food and nutrition, etc. At the moment, out of the 8,320 villages where about 90% of Tanzanians live, 7,600 (i.e. 91%) have their own primary schools; 6,000 (i.e. 72%) have their own cooperative shops; 3,100 (i.e. 37%) enjoy the provision of a pure water supply; 2,900 (i.e. 35%) have dispensaries and 1,000 (i.e. 12%) have crop storage facilities.

These achievements have been made by the peoples' own initiatives and direct participation in their villages. The decentralised system has contributed a lot towards the effective and successful implementation of Universal Primary Education and Adult Functional Literacy Programmes. The gross enrolment ratio at primary education level now stands at more than 95% and the literacy rate at around 80%. Also, decentralisation was behind the success of the nation-wide mass campaigns on health, sanitation and nutrition.

Other significant experiences gained after decentralisation include the settling of either regional, district or village problems at the level

of the origin of the problem. Thus, if a problem of supplying some building materials for a school in a district crops up, the district works out a solution to it. The old procedures of referring the matter up the administrative ladder have ceased. Local problems are solved locally.

Also, after decentralisation, each region, district or village feels duty-bound to speed up the development of its respective people. This feeling has created a lot of enthusiasm for self advancement.

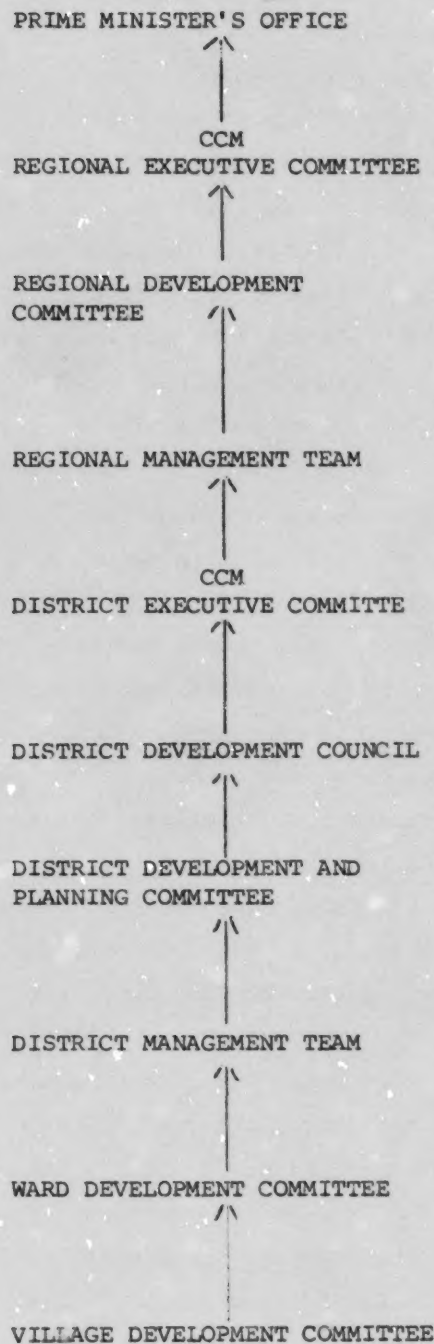
Decentralisation has also created and promoted team spirit in most development programmes at different levels in the country. Adult education activities have, for example, become a collective effort by all officials in the district. The officials work as a team under the leadership of the DDD. The District Adult Education coordinator does the routine work only. Most of the mobilisation of teachers to teach adults and run seminars for improving adult education activities is a district affair, and all sectors in the district are involved. The same can be said for all other social and economic development programmes in different areas.

VIII. PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED DURING THE EARLY STAGES OF DECENTRALISATION

Such a major reform cannot be expected to proceed without negative experiences. The most significant ones were as follows:

- (a) shortage of skilled personnel particularly at the village and even district levels.
- (b) It was not easy to draw up a national plan which was more than simply a "shopping list" of regional requests or, at the other extreme, an isolated statement of central priorities that ignores local needs.
- (c) The Prime Minister's Office had difficulties in supervising the format and timetable of plan preparation and submission, including revision and approval. The complications involved can easily be appreciated from Chart 3, where all the stages through which development plans are channelled (from village to Prime Minister's Office and back) are shown.
- (d) Although most of the decentralised technical staff at regional and district levels were reasonably trained, they lacked experience in managing an area-based

Chart 3. The Planning Process



N.B.: CCM: Chama Cha Mapinduzi (the ruling Party of Tanzania).

planning system. Thus, in many cases, the area plans so prepared were geared towards impressing the central authorities rather than reflecting the real situation.

- (e) Since they were composed mostly of staff decentralised from Dar-es-Salaam, the area authorities had not changed substantially in their attitudes towards planning and administration. Although their responsibilities were clearly defined in their job descriptions, they had not developed enough self-confidence in decision-making. At the same time, the central authorities did not substantially change their old bureaucratic and authoritarian attitudes. This brought about a lot of confusion. For example, the Regional Development Directors and the Principal Secretaries had not properly understood the type of mutual cooperation and coordination expected of them. They are supposed to maintain mutual working relations to indicate a flow of ideas from the regions to the sectoral ministry headquarters and vice versa. But this did not happen: instead, there were personality clashes.

Within the regions or districts themselves, there were also some shows of strength, particularly between RDD's (or DDD's) on the one hand and their functional officers on the other. For instance, a Regional Education Office (REO) would transfer a teacher to a certain school without informing the RDD who, being the regional employer, must know the movement of his personnel in the region. Because of this lack of communication between the RDD and the REO, the former would become annoyed. In retaliation, he would nullify the REO's letter and furnish the incumbent teacher with another letter of transfer, this time to a different school altogether. These sort of cases happened to almost all other types of sectoral functional staff in regions and districts.

- (f) The centre has always been confronted by the problem of favouring less elaborate and economically less

profitable proposals from the poorer areas to those from richer areas, which are usually more appealing. However, it must be emphasized that these problems were caused by lack of experience and are not untypical of a new reform. Over the years, the situation has kept on improving and at the moment, such problems can be said to be at a minimum level.

IX. CONCLUSION

With the decentralised system, Tanzania has now a much better chance of success in her general policy of integrated rural development.

After only 8 years of decentralisation, it is noticeable that villagers are enthusiastically planning their own development projects and are actively involved in implementation, without waiting for outside assistance. This eagerness on the part of the local people to manage their own affairs gives a positive indication of a bright future for integrated area-based planning in Tanzania.

References:

1. Ministry of National Education; *"The Decentralization of Educational Planning and Administration in Tanzania"* - A Handout prepared by the Sectoral Planning Unit, 1977.
2. Economic Research Bureau; *"Decentralised Planning and Poverty-Focussed Rural Development: Intra-Regional Planning in Tanzania"* - A Research Report by D.G.R. Belshaw, University of Dar-es-Salaam Printing Unit, 1977.
3. Kighoma A. Malima, M.P. (Minister of State for Economic Affairs - Tanzania); *"Economic Planning in National Development"* - a speech delivered at a Meeting of the Tanzania Journalists Association (TAJA); Outlined in *Daily News Tanzania* (a Government newspaper and *Mzalendo* (a Party newspaper, both of 21st September, 1980.
4. Knanda, M.; *The Tanzanian Primary School Reform*, Paris, IIEP, 1980; Seminar Paper.

A CRASH PROGRAMME IN MASS EDUCATION:
THE EXPERIENCE OF BANGLADESH

by M. Selim
Educational Advisor
Ministry of Education
Dacca

I. BASIC CONSIDERATIONS IN IMPLEMENTING THE CRASH
PROGRAMME OF MASS EDUCATION

The Government of Bangladesh has embarked on a crash programme in mass education as the first step of a gigantic task of liquidating the problem of illiteracy within the shortest possible time. The priority given to this particular social sector is not difficult to explain. Bold action in this direction is considered to be an answer to long standing demands of the people, after years of neglect of the educational system, especially at primary or foundation level; a factor which has been compounded by a high rate of population growth. The inability of the school system to absorb this increase has led to insufficiencies in achieving the desired level of national development because vast resources of manpower available are generally lacking in skills and are also largely illiterate.

To briefly review the state of affairs in literacy - a fundamental responsibility generally associated with the primary school system - it is recorded that in 1951, the extent of literacy in the country was 21 per cent and remained the same for a decade. Then, in 1974, it rose to 22.2 per cent. For a period of about a quarter of a century, therefore, the aggregate achievement of all efforts to make the citizenry literate was a dismal figure of 1.2 per cent. Moreover, the improvement in literacy is seen to be minor when one considers that as the country's population increased (a reduction of the birth rate of only 6.4 units per thousand as against 26.7 units for the death rate) the absolute number of illiterates went up from 24.6 million in 1951 to about 46.2 million in 1974. The absolute figure today is approximately 50 million.

The reasons for the increase in the absolute number of illiterates are not difficult to trace. Population growth is the result in improvements in medical technology, accompanied by a concurrent diffusion of medical services reaching even the remotest areas of the country. These twin developments consequently increased the survival rate and life expectancies of the people. But while this was taking place, the school system itself failed to increase its efficiency and absorptive capacity commensurate with the increase in the number of the school age population. This slow development is strongly correlated with the general level of development that the country attained. Much as the Government desires to streamline and expand its educational system to attract and retain children of school age, due to sheer lack of resources it cannot do so. Likewise, economic factors negatively affect decisions of families to send their children to school or to continue once they are on school. Indeed, there is not much that can be spared for education - which today remains a luxury for many people - in a country in which the average per capita income is only US\$110 per year. Moreover, if there are economic barriers that prevent the speedy development of even the most fundamental level of education, there are also strong psychological and sociological constraints that further complicate these educational problems.

Studies have shown that a positive correlation exists between the level of educational attainment of parents and their decision to encourage their children to continue in the educational system. Our own assessment of parents who have enrolled in adult education programmes with an accent on literacy training, revealed that these parents' levels of aspirations for education among their children seem to have gone up significantly compared with illiterate parents who never enrolled or attended classes in the adult education.

Topographic and geographic factors too exert a considerable role in deterring parents from sending their children to school, preventing children from going to school or encouraging drop-outs once they are already at various levels of the primary school system. Bangladesh is a riverine country and for some two to three months of the year, a good third of its area is virtually submerged under water. During this period the centres of populations in the rural areas are clusters of human settlements perched on elevated lands, isolated from one another by areas of water. Accessibility to schools requires the use of boats if children are to go to

school during the rainy seasons. This has become a severe problem which militates against rural peoples' desire for education.

In any analysis of the factors that contribute to the low level of enrolment or continuation in school, it is not feasible to exclude certain cultural traditions still prevalent in society. These require that girls, upon reaching age of puberty, be separated from the boys. Moreover, customs (now giving way) also dictate that when female children have attained this age, parents would not normally allow their daughters to travel some distance away from their homes, even for education.

The country and its national leadership, apart from considering that the provision of at least basic education is both a social responsibility and a right of citizens, are also committed to the objective of transforming the huge reservoir of manpower into a critical factor for the achievement of accelerated growth and development, and thus the Government has embarked on an extensive programme of mass education.

II. OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAMME

The mass education programme of Bangladesh which is now popularly known as the second stage of the national peaceful revolution - the first being mass mobilization of the people for voluntary labour in digging canals as a way of expanding irrigation facilities to enable farmers to double or even treble their agricultural outputs - is implemented in two phases. The first which is a crash programme emphasizing literacy training, though it includes some elements of functional education, began in February 1980 and will continue up to the end of the year. The second phase, to be implemented under the Second Five Year Plan, will commence in 1981. This will be an expanded programme giving considerable attention to the development of a functional and utilitarian type of education designed to achieve overall improvements in the way of life of its clientele.

The crash programme in mass education, in its short run objectives, is designed to enable the illiterates to:

- (a) write simple sentences in Bangla;
- (b) read and understand simple Bangla; and
- (c) do fundamental calculations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

But as this programme develops into a more sophisticated approach for achieving far-reaching reforms in mass education, its ultimate objectives are to enable the masses of people it has chosen to help to:

- (a) acquire functional knowledge, skills and competencies which will have wider applications in the search for a better livelihood and way of life;
- (b) participate more actively and intelligently in civic and development activities, especially those taking place within the immediate neighbourhood;
- (c) develop positive views towards himself, his family and his country.

III. SCOPE OF THE PROGRAMME

The crash programme has set a target of achieving literacy among some 10,000,000 people both male and female (at an average rate of 150 per village) by the end of December 1980. These people primarily fall within the age range of 10 to 45 years. The focus on this age group is considered as a legitimate strategy because they are likely to contribute the longest years of service to economic activities. Moreover, this group also constitutes the bulk of the economically active population of the country today.

The geographic scope of the programme extends throughout the whole country. Its unit of programme implementation ranges from the "para" or clusters of houses in the 68,000 odd villages to the slums and even plush residential sections of the urban and metropolitan areas of Dacca and other cities. The scheme, under this crash programme, which highlights the gravity of the problem and the need to solve it, is to organise mass education programmes whenever and wherever this is possible. Moreover, as an experimental effort at educational reform, its countrywide coverage is expected to enrich the national experience in searching for solutions to the problems of implementation once the more comprehensive programme is implemented.

Since it is committed to achieving positive results for its clients, the crash programme is implemented so as to give due consideration to the divergent requirements of its learner clientele. Thus, whenever it is deemed essential, mass education classes are organised separately within villages to cater exclusively to female or male learners or to take account of occupational involvement, etc., classes are held anywhere and at any time of the day, including early and even late evening.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS

For an extensive programme of mass education such as the one that the country has launched, there is a need, ideally, for a national infrastructure or bureaucracy which will attend to the complex requirements of the programme. But while there is strong support for the provision of such an organisation during the Second Five Year Plan, the Government, fully aware of the urgency to start this important educational reform has resorted to creating an *ad hoc*, albeit loose semblance, of a bureaucracy to perform such functions. It has done this by the drawing up of administrative directives, circulars and memoranda, which are continuously issued from the offices of the President of the country, the Prime Minister (who is concurrently in charge of the Ministry of Education), the Secretary of the Ministry of Education and such other heads of pertinent ministries of the Government whose offices have been directed by the President to participate in this national reform.

With the issuance of these administrative orders, public officials at every tier of the governmental machinery are being mobilised for specific tasks and responsibilities. Hence, the officials at the national level have frequently met the key officers of the districts and after explaining to them all the pertinent guidelines, policies and objectives of the programme, have enjoined them to take a pioneering and active attitude to the implementation of the programme in their respective spheres of administration. Moreover, strategies for the implementation of the programme were discussed at great length with these officials. The district officials were likewise made to convey national guidelines and directives through meetings and conferences, to the thana officers. This procedure was replicated down to the Union Parishad. The members of the Union Parishad, together with other local leaders, organized the mass education squads or voluntary teachers who are drawn from the socially-minded literate population of the communities like unemployed, educated youth, school teachers, retired public servants, members of the village defence party, women's organizations, "immams" of mosques and so on.

A minimum of two teaching squads, each consisting of at least 3 members (male or female or mixed) may be organized in a village. The members of these mass education squads are given briefings on the goals and objectives of the programme, instructions on the use of the literacy materials (three literacy primers using three approaches in the teaching of literacy and teachers' guides on these primers) printed for this programme,

and guidelines on the organization of classes by the Thana Education Officers and school teachers. Union Parishad members, together with civic-minded residents of the community and the members of the mass education squads, are also made responsible for identifying the prospective clientele and motivating them to continue attending the programme when they begin losing interest. Selection of the venue and the time for holding classes is left entirely to the members of the teaching squads. They also maintain a roster of the participants and a record of attendance. In order to further encourage members of the literacy squads to carry out their tasks, they are allowed free access to officials of the school system as well as to officials who represent various ministries at the village level. This is particularly relevant as there are occasions when these officials can help in thrashing out problems that are linked with the entire campaign.

In the organization and formation of mass education squads, the programme has also depended on high school and college students enrolled in classes 9 to 12. Administrative directives were immediately issued by the Ministry of Education requiring these categories of students to participate compulsorily in the implementation of the crash programme. Students' participation in this activity was declared, in effect, as a form of compliance with the work programme by students as a part of their school curriculum. A total of 50 marks has been allocated for this in the Secondary and Higher Secondary School Certificate Examinations in 1981.

One of the key elements in the speedy implementation of the crash programme at the grassroots level is the fact that it could rely on a team of programme implementors. At the village there are zealous people, particularly the newly created gram sarker (village government) who with tactful prodding can motivate the learners and goad the mass education squads to perform their voluntary work with a reasonable amount of dedication and commitment.

At a relatively higher level there are the Union Parishad members who, as representatives of the different villages constituting the Union Parishad, having a number of responsibilities in the day-to-day life of the village, also assist in encouraging the programme. Specifically in relation to the implementation of the mass education programme, these Union Parishads, headed by their respective Chairman, assume coordinating roles for all activities associated with the programme. As the principal administrative body overseeing the programme, the Union Parishads have also been made

responsible for taking delivery of the primers and teachers' guides from thana officials and distributing them to the members of the mass education squads. They in turn distribute them to the end-users or participants.

Apart from 450,000 voluntary teachers who constitute 146,000 mass education squads now operational throughout the country, there are today some 37,000 active government primary schools operating all over the country. These schools employ an aggregate of 157,000 teachers. These teachers, who are located mainly in the villages, have the concurrent responsibility of extending every possible assistance that is required in running the programme of mass education. Moreover, to strengthen such a relationship and increase the utilization of every existing resource in the country, circulars were not only issued to primary school teachers but also to other educational institutions like the secondary schools, madrasahs, colleges, primary teacher training institutes, private institutions, and polytechnic institutes, requiring them to organise in their respective premises at least one mass education centre which they will run on a regular and continuing basis.

In order to attain an element of compliance with this directive from the non-government or private institutions, the Government has also issued circulars to these institutions informing them that government grants and all other forms of assistance will be extended only upon presentation of sufficient proof that they have effectively participated in the mass education programme. As a means of checking such activities, these institutions have been required to submit monthly progress reports on their mass education activities to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education in turn, with its existing network of officials, will have these reported activities regularly checked.

During the implementation of the programme at the grassroot level, *ad hoc* and permanent organizations have been set up at the national level to see that the mass education programme is carried out successfully. A National Organizing Group for Mass Education with membership drawn from officials of the Ministry of Education, the Directorate of Public Instruction, the Directorate of Technical Education, University Grants Commission, Bangladesh Education Extension and Research Institute, Teachers' Training College and the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics, has been organized and has the main responsibility for implementing the programme. The group makes a periodic review of the problems and

progress of the programme and the members either singly or in groups, undertake spot visits in various districts and discuss problems with personnel working at the lower levels of programme implementation. Reports of this National Organizing Group are transmitted to the Mass Education Cell in the office of the Prime Minister. The Prime Minister, whenever necessary, takes up these problems with the competent officials of other ministries, when he convenes an interministerial meeting on mass education.

But apart from the National Organizing Group, the Ministry of Education has also created a Task Force within the National Organizing Group. Headed by the Joint Secretary (Development), who is also the Coordinator of the Mass Education Cell of the Prime Minister's Office, this Task Force looks after the technical and professional requirements of the programme that can be decided at the central level, including plans for the development of resources for mass education such as the provision of training materials and the training and development of personnel for the various levels at which the programme is operational.

From the moment of its conceptualization, the mass education programme, with its requirement for broad and functional contents and orientation, has always been foreseen as an undertaking in which inevitably, various ministries and even private voluntary organizations need to be involved or mobilized. At the same time, in a situation where the programme still lacks a stable and comprehensive infrastructure for programme implementation, it must rely greatly on a number of institutions that are already in existence. Within the context of this objective, interministerial meetings are periodically convened and chaired by the Honourable Prime Minister. Likewise, the Secretary of the Ministry of Education, at appropriate levels commensurate with the demands of administrative norms or protocol, also arranges interministerial meetings on mass education. This mechanism of interministerial cooperation has led to some major breakthroughs and accomplishments in the implementation of the programme, e.g. the Ministry of Home Affairs with its network of Village Defence Parties operating throughout Bangladesh, has mobilized 20,000 of its literate members to impart mass education to 100,000 of its illiterate members. The Swanirvar or self-reliance movement which has been an overall programme for rural development in Bangladesh has intensified its main activities in those thanas where the programme is presently operating, to include mass education.

The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting in cooperation with the Ministry of Education conducts regular programmes on mass education on radio and television.

The crash programme in mass education in Bangladesh is only intended to be the prelude for a more systematic and extensive scheme to be undertaken in the near future. As an experimental undertaking for educational reform, it should be able to identify the weakest spots in the present programme and be able to suggest corrective measures to improve it. The results achieved on this particular point will have great significance in the implementation of what is proposed under the Second Five Year Plan. The *ad hoc* bodies organized by the Ministry of Education to look at the programme; the regular meetings between the Prime Minister and the Additional Deputy Commissioners (Mass Literacy) to discuss problems and issues confronting the programme; and the assignment given to the Academy for Fundamental Education to carry out a systematic nationwide study and evaluation of the programme, are various attempts to accelerate the programme and to understand it better so that it will be effective not only in terms of results but cost effective as well.

V. ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS FOR GENERALIZATION

Looking back at the crash programme on mass education from its commencement in February, at a point in time when it is about to be integrated into the general plan of development under the Second Five Year Plan, what are some of the outstanding and significant discoveries which could be adopted for the more extensive programme to be implemented at the beginning of 1981?

If there is one outstanding lesson that has been gained from the national exercise it is the fact that a strong political will and national commitment by the highest functionaries of the land can push forward a programme, even of this magnitude, and can achieve some results. The formal launching of the programme on 21 February by the President was not just a gesture or symbolic ritual to underline the gravity of the problem of illiteracy in Bangladesh, for the President himself went on a tour of the country pleading for the eradication of illiteracy and demonstrating its disadvantageous effects on national efforts at development.

Moreover, to give incontrovertible proof of the intentions of both the President and the Prime Minister, who have been at the helm in bringing the campaign against illiteracy to a successful end, Tk.40 million was

immediately sanctioned to underwrite the initial cost of the programme. This amount enabled literacy primers and teachers' guides to be immediately produced. As funds were given on time, the Government was able to draw up contracts with the printing presses which were put on three shifts a day to produce in record time some 10,000,000 copies of the books, 400,000 teachers' guides and 200,000 large posters urgently needed by the programme.

At the same time every effort was exerted to mobilize the entire infrastructure of the Education Ministry for the various requirements of the programme. Officers of the Directorate of Public Instruction, District Education Officers, Thana Education Officers, and in some cases even the teachers were mobilized on a relay basis for the distribution of these textbooks. The services of the locally elected Union Parishad and the representatives of other ministries were also made available to the programme.

While content at the beginning to implement the programme mainly with the existing personnel of the Ministry of Education, the Government finally decided to create twenty positions for Additional Deputy Commissioners (Mass Literacy) and had these posts filled on record time. Under the overall coordination and guidance of the Deputy Commissioner each of these Additional Deputy Commissioners is vested with the responsibility for the implementation of the programme at a district level. They are required likewise to monitor the progress of the programme regularly once a week, and at the end of every month, to send their reports to the Mass Literacy Cell of the Office of the Prime Minister. But apart from the weekly and monthly monitoring system to provide the national authorities with frequent and periodic reports, the ADSS (Literacy) are also convened by the Prime Minister at reasonable intervals, to enable the latter to obtain news at first hand about the status of the programme in the twenty districts of the country. Problems reported in these meetings are carefully recorded and those that require solutions from other ministries are brought to the interministerial meetings that the Prime Minister convenes whenever necessary.

When deemed essential, problems of mass education are even brought to the attention of the President who reminds the ministries concerned of the need for their cooperation in the programme. The President also holds periodic meetings with the Ministers and senior government officials including the Deputy Commissioners and ADC (ML) to review progress of implementation of the crash programme and gives directives as necessary to expand activities.

VI. ADMINISTRATIVE DIFFICULTIES

The administrative problems and difficulties encountered in the course of generalization of this mass education programme have been numerous.

The first and foremost of the problems was, in fact, that of time. At the beginning it looked as if it would be impossible to formulate ideas and complete numerous administrative arrangements within the very short period of seven weeks between the President's declaration of the programme and its actual launching. The arrangements included devising the field operational strategy, printing and distribution of literacy materials (down to the villages), organization of mass education squads and also their training. For the members of the Organizing Group and others connected with it, the experience was at times agonizing and frustrating, but nevertheless exciting. To add to this, the programme could only rely on a shoe-string budget and could not, therefore, command the number and quality of manpower required to run and administer the programme.

The programme, through the issuance of directives, memoranda and circulars by the appropriate national officials seems to have succeeded in exacting a reasonable degree of compliance from the regular officials of the Government who had been enjoined to extend their co-operation. For the few hundred thousand volunteer teachers who provide time and efforts in teaching the clients of this programme, there was little that could be done to provide any compensation for jobs well done. Due to inability to give rewards to these thousands of volunteers, heavy reliance had to be placed on the ability of the Union Parishad and paid government officials to motivate these volunteer teachers. As teaching in the mass education classes is a long drawn out process until lessons are completed and the clients have learnt the skills that they are being taught, retaining teachers is quite difficult. It is even more difficult to sustain the motivation and interest of the learners.

District, thana and other officials who provided the entire organizational efforts for the implementation of the programme could have been given better training. Time as well as financial constraints were the two major problems in achieving this goal. To remedy these twin problems, multi-stage intensive crash training programmes were held under a scheme in which central officials trained the implementing officials of the district; these officials once back in their respective districts, trained the thana education officers and teachers and these latter in turn trained the members

of the mass education squads at the village level (see Appendix III). The role of the teachers as trainers of members of the mass education squads should be noted.

When the programme on mass education started, a number of training materials already existed written by various authors with a long history of involvement in literacy training in Bangladesh. The printing of these training materials at the required speed and in sufficient quantity, however, was an initial bottleneck to be met. There was never any instance in the history of education in the country in which suddenly the Ministry of Education had to cope with the challenge of producing more than 10,000,000 books within so short a time. A special group of officials working with the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Information and Broadcasting was organized and members of this body doggedly followed up the production of the textbooks by the 14 printing presses contracted for the job, which were made to work almost continuously for 24 hours a day. Even then they found it extremely difficult to maintain the original time schedule for the delivery of the books.

While a well-conceived administrative strategy for textbook distribution was devised, distribution in practice met with some problems. Some officials who were made responsible for their distribution had other official commitments and could not therefore immediately attend to this additional work. In other instances, officials did not have the funds on time for the expenses of transporting these books. During the very early phase of the drive on textbook distribution, there were no effective checks on whether the books actually reached the learners, and consequently there were places which did not receive the books on time.

VII. EXPERIENCE GAINED

The programme has now been under implementation for a little over eight months during which an estimated eight million learners, both male and female (in almost equal proportion) of various age groups and occupations, have been enrolled under the care of 450,000 members of 145,000 teaching squads. To what extent the programme has been effective in terms of achieving its objectives is yet to be critically assessed and established. But from what has been observed, certain generalizations can be made without much risk of contradiction.

The experience of Bangladesh in initiating a national reform in mass education has pointed out hitherto unknown capabilities which the system of education can generate and execute. The first lesson gained was that a political will manifested in concrete and sincere terms can bring about results. The national leaders must be the first to demonstrate sincerity in the implementation of these reforms.

A national bureaucracy for implementing a national programme of reform in education is essential. But given a situation in which this was not possible due to the time and finance required to set it up, an *ad hoc* bureaucracy created from the already existing infrastructure of the Ministry of Education and other ministries can be immediately set up to execute a programme. Having said this, however, a national reform on mass education must anticipate problems in the long term both as regards its objectives as well as in the number of clients that it intends to cover (50,000,000 in the case of Bangladesh). There arises in the end the need to set up a permanent and separate organizational machinery whose sole concern is to see that the execution of this reform is pursued to its logical conclusion. Having learnt from the lessons of the first phase in the eradication of illiteracy, a National Directorate of Primary and Mass Education, whose Mass Education Wing will have a full complement of personnel from the central down to local level, is to be established in the Second Five Year Plan.

Another enriching experience that was gained in this programme of educational reform was that there are extensive manpower and institutional resources available in the country which can be relied on to support mass education. There are village leaders, retired government officials, political party functionaries, high school students, teachers, religious and clerical officials, leaders of socio-civic organisations, etc. ..., whose skills can be tapped in an undertaking like mass education.

Constant dialogue between officials at the national level, who are more concerned with policy formulation, and officials at lower echelons who deal with the details of the programme at the point of implementation, can provide a very strong and adequate strategy to sustain programme implementors at lower levels of government. The results obtained in these dialogues are further strengthened by the constant issuance of complementary memoranda and directives to emphasize the importance of the reform being initiated.

A national programme of reform in education which depends for its execution on the voluntary participation of people either as client, teacher

or programme implementor can only be mounted by achieving a high level of motivation to ensure that every person concerned will give his share to this reform. While conceding that this level of motivation can be attained, it has also been observed that this requires a greater effort than motivation of people who fall within that class of learners encompassed by the formal school system.

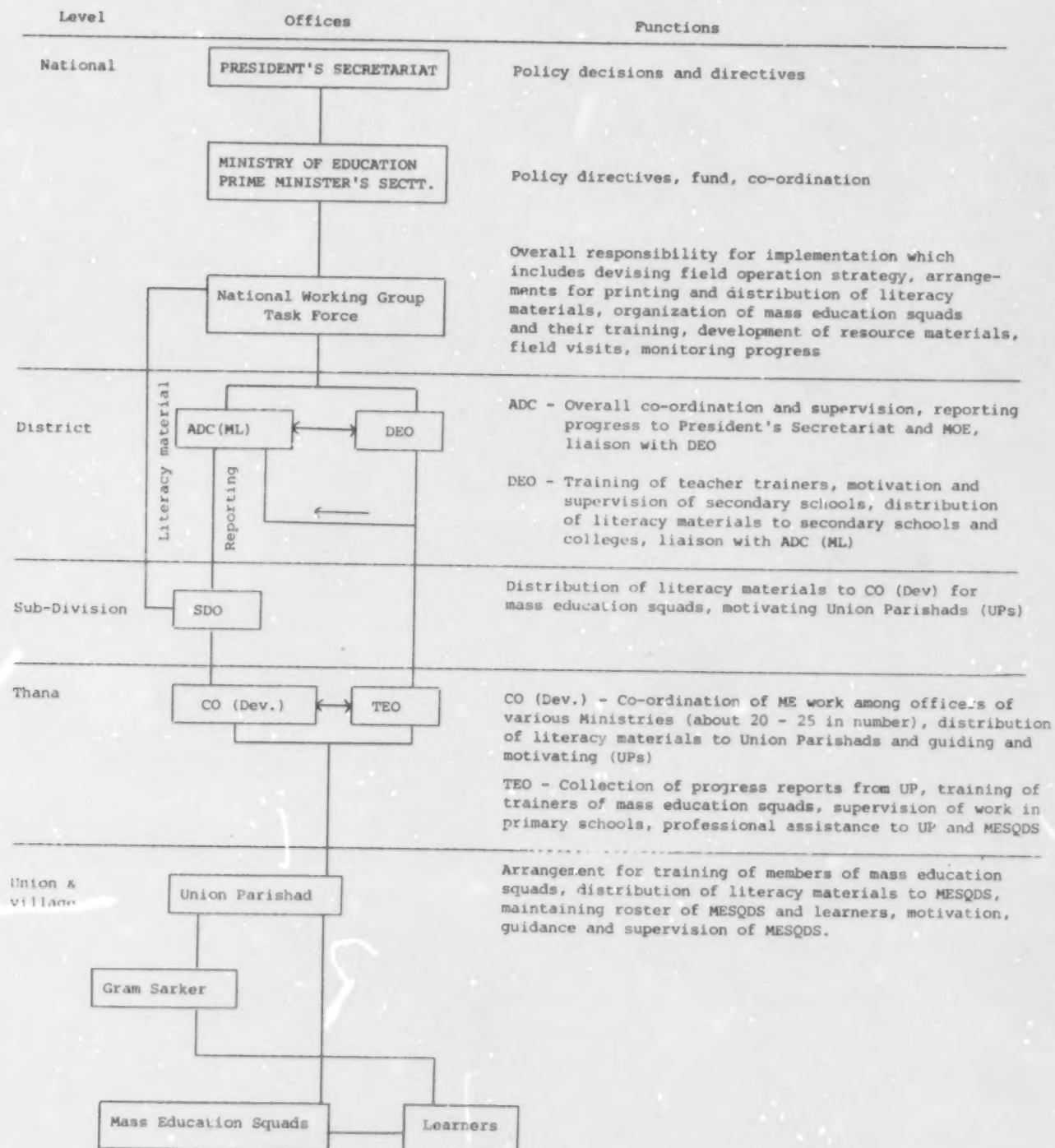
A reform can ride on another reform and achieve mutually advantageous results. Over a long period of time the Government had been thinking of giving students some responsibilities for the development of society while going through a process of learning under the formal school system. The awareness of such a strategy has led to the development of the concept of a "work programme" for students in schools, colleges and universities. The mass education programme in which students are being made to teach or are involved in other forms of activities linked with the programmes, has demonstrated the validity of this educational concept. Moreover the willingness of students to be engaged in this reform has brought mutually advantageous results for both "teachers" and clientele.

An educational reform such as mass education initially oriented to the acquisition of literacy is just the proverbial "tip of the iceberg" in a learning process. Once literacy is attained by the people, it opens up various demands for other forms of knowledge. They want more than literacy - in fact they want literacy to lead to more meaningful forms of education which will have a direct bearing on their day-to-day life and existence.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX I

OPERATIONAL SET-UP OF CRASH PROGRAMME IN MASS EDUCATION



APPENDIX II

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

1. ADC (ML)

Additional Deputy Commissioner (Mass Literacy). Bangladesh is divided into 20 administrative districts. The administrative co-ordinator of a district is the Deputy Commissioner who is assisted by a number of ADCs like ADC(Revenue), ADC(Development), ADC(ML) is a new position created only for mass education.

2. DEO

District Education Officer who looks after administration and development of the secondary schools of the district.

3. SDO

Sub-divisional Officer. For administrative purposes each district is divided into a number of Sub-divisions. The administrative co-ordinator of a Sub-division is the SDO. The total number of Sub-divisions is 72.

4. CO(D)

Circuit Officer (Development). He is the co-ordinator of development activities of the Government in his respective Thana. The present number of Thana is 472.

5. TEO

Thana Education Officer. He is in charge of administration of primary education in a Thana.

6. Union Parishad (Council)

Elected local body representing approximately 14 villages on the average. The Parishad consists of ten members and the Chairman of the Parishad is elected by the members from amongst themselves. The Parishad plays an important rôle in the development activities in its respective area.

7. Gram Sarker

Village Council elected by the villagers to look after the problems and development of the village on a principle of self-reliance to the extent possible. Their major responsibilities concern food production, mass education and family planning.

APPENDIX III

TEACHER TRAINING IN MASS EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Level	Persons trained	Trainer	Timing of the training	Duration of the training	Materials and method used during training
1	2	3	4	5	6
National at Dacca	Deputy Directors of Public Instruction from 4 divisions, 20 District Education Officers (DEO), 20 District Inspectors of Schools (DI), and 47 Superintendents of Primary Training Institutions (PTI)	Key personnel of mass education programme	January 10-11, 1980	2 days	Literacy primers and teachers, guides, lectures, demonstration and discussion
District	470 Thana Education Officers (TEO) and two local teachers from each of 470 Thanas	DEOs and Superintendents of PTIs	Between February 1-8, 1980	2 days	- do -
Thana	Mass education workers from each union	TEOs and teachers trained at the district level	Between February 10-15, 1980	2 days	- do -
Union	Members of mass education squads	Persons trained at the Thana level	Between February 17-20, 1980	2 days	- do -

VII. SELECTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY
prepared by the Documentation Centre, IIEP

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. GENERAL WORKS ON ADMINISTRATION AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

ALLAMA IQBAL UNIVERSITY. Pakistan. Plan implementation and management. Vol.II, M.A. course, Units 8-10. /Islamabad/: Allama Iqbal Open University, 1979. (EPM 503).

ASPECTS of educational administration: elements for a dossier. In: Prospects, Vol.7, No.1, 1977, p.57-126. Also published in French and Spanish.

BASILE, Anne. Educational administration and management for development: towards an inventory of descriptors. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1979. (Reports and studies S.64).

CANADIAN and comparative educational administration. Ed. by Robin H. Farquhar and Ian E. Housego. Vancouver, B.C.: Education-Extension, Centre for Continuing Education, University of British Columbia, 1980.

DAVIS, Gordon B. and CAMPBELL, B. Management information systems: conceptual foundations, structure and development. Tokyo: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, 1974.

EDUCATIONAL administration. Written by members of the Society of Education Officers and edited by Kenneth Brooksbank. London: Councils and Education Press, 1980.

FRIESEN, David, FARINE, Avigdor I. and MEEK, Collins. Educational administration: a comparative view. Edmonton (Alberta): Department of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta, 1980.

GETZELS, Jacob W., LIPHAM, James M. and CAMPBELL, Roald F. Educational administration as a social process: theory, research, practice. New York: Harper and Row, c1968.

HAAG, Daniel and MUNARI, Silvio. Gestion d'un système scolaire. Neuchâtel: Editions de la Baconnière, 1976. 2 vols. Vol.1: Perspectives globales par Daniel Haag. Vol.2: Structures et modes de fonctionnement par Silvio Munari.

HAAG, Daniel. The Right to education: what kind of management? Paris: Unesco, 1982. (Studies and surveys in comparative education / International Bureau of Education) A study prepared for the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, 37th Session of the International Conference of Education. Also published in French and Spanish.

HARRISON E., Frank. The Managerial decision-making process. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975.

HOY, Wayne K. and MISKEL, Cecil G. Educational administration: theory, research and practice. New York: Random House, 1978.

HUGHES, Meredydd. Ed. Administering education: international challenge. London: Athlone Press, 1975. (Third International Intervisitation Programme on Educational Administration, Bristol, Glasgow, London, July 1974).

IMBODEN, N. A Management approach to project appraisal and evaluation: with special reference to non-directly productive projects. Paris: OECD Development Centre, 1978. Also published in French.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION, 37th, Geneva, 5-14 July 1979. Documents. Paris: Unesco; Geneva: IBE, 1979. Special topic: Improvement of the organization and management of education systems as a means of raising efficiency in order to extend the right to education. Recommendation No.72 to the Ministries of Education concerning the improvement of the organization and management of education systems as a means of raising efficiency in order to extend the right to education. Recommendation adopted to the 37th Session of the International Conference on Education. Also published in French and Spanish.

IIEP SEMINAR ON ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING. Paris, 23 June to 4 July 1969. Contributions to a seminar held at the International Institute for Educational Planning organized by Raymond Lyons. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1970. Also published in French.

IIEP SEMINAR ON MANAGEMENT AND DECISION-MAKING IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING. Paris, 20-28 July 1970. Contributions to a seminar held at the International Institute for Educational Planning edited by Nathan Kravetz. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1970. Also published in French.

IIEP WORKSHOP ON PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION OF NATIONAL LITERACY PROGRAMMES. Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania, 27 November to 2 December 1980. Contributions. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1983.

LE MOIGNE, J.L. Les Systèmes d'information dans les organisations. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1973.

LE MOIGNE, J.L. Les Systèmes de décision dans les organisations. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1974.

LE MOIGNE, J.L. La Théorie du système général: théorie de la modélisation. Paris: FUF, 1977.

The "MACROSCOPE": a methodological approach for a better understanding of educational processes as they relate to social and cultural development. Paris: Unesco, 1982. (ED-82/WS/49) Book accompanied by 15 overhead transparencies. Also published in French and Spanish.

MALPICA, Carlos N. Educational administration and its relation with planning and research. Paris: Unesco, International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (Fundamentals of educational planning. Lecture-discussion series no.66). Also published in Spanish.

- MALPICA, Carlos N. The Practice of educational planning and its relations with decision-making and policy implementation. Elements for the definition of a research proposal. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1982. (IIEP/Prg.CM/82.158).
- MANAGEMENT in education; reader 1: The Management of organizations and individuals. Ed. by Vincent Houghton, Royston Morgan and Colin Morgan. London: Ward Lock Educational in association with the Open University Press, 1975. Prepared for the Open University course "Management in education". (E321)
- MARCH, James G. and SIMON, Herbert A. Organizations. New York: Wiley, 1975.
- MESAROVIC, M.D., MACKO, D. and TAKAHARA, Y. Theory of hierarchical, multi-level, systems. New York: Academic Press, 1970. (Mathematics in science and engineering vol.68).
- MELESE, Jacques. Approches systémiques des organisations. Vers l'entreprise à complexité humaine. Paris: Editions Hommes et Techniques, 1979.
- MELESE, Jacques. La Gestion par les systèmes: essai de praxéologie. Puteaux: Editions Hommes et Techniques, c1968.
- MIALARET, Gaston. Les Sciences de l'éducation. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1976. Chap.I: Extension actuelle de la notion d'éducation. Chap.II: Les Facteurs déterminant les situations d'éducation.
- MIKLOS, E. Educational administration in an era of transition. In: Educafrica, Vol.1, No.2, December 1974, p.5-10. Also published in French.
- MONTGOMERY, John D. Alternatives and decisions in educational planning. Paris: Unesco, International Institute for Educational Planning, 1976. (Fundamentals of educational planning no.22). Also published in French and Portuguese.
- MORPHET, Edgar L., JOHNS, Roe L. and RELLER, Theodore L. Educational organization and administration concepts, practices and issues. 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1974.
- OLIVERA, Carlos E. The Administration of educational development in Latin America. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1979. (IIEP research report no.34)
- ORGANIZATIONAL theory. In: Educational Administration Quarterly, vol.17, No.3, 1981. (issue).
- ORTIZ, Eduardo and BASILE, Anne. Educational administration terminology = Terminologie de l'administration de l'éducation = Terminología de la administración de la educación. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1982. (Reports, studies S.96).

PLANNING education for development. Ed. by Russell G. Davis, David Kline and Gary Lewis. Cambridge, Mass: Center for Studies in Education and Development, Harvard University, 1980. 4 vols. Vol.I: Issues and problems in the planning of education in developing countries. Vol.II: Models and methods for systematic planning of education. Vol.III: Research methods for educational planning. Vol.V: Data analysis for educational planning.

PROBLEM-finding in educational administration: trends in research theory. Ed. by Glenn L. Immegart and William Lowe Boyd. Lexington, Mass: Lexington Books, 1979. Proceedings of a seminar held in Rochester, New York in May 1977.

PUELLES BENITEZ, Manuel de /et al/. Elementos de administración educativa. Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, 1980.

REGIONAL SEMINAR ON EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION. Victoria, Australia, 8-14 April 1982. Managing structural change in education in Asia and the Pacific: a blueprint for action. Ed. by G.S. Harman. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service, 1983. The seminar was organized by the Australian National Commission for Unesco.

SANDER, Benno. Administração da educação no Brasil: evolução do conhecimento. Fortaleza: Edições UFC; Brasília: Associação Nacional de Profissionais de Administração da Educação, 1982. (Cadernos de administração escolar / ANPAE no.7).

SCOTT, Richard. Organizations, rational, natural and open systems. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1981.

SEIBEL, Claude. Administration et gestion de l'éducation: informatisation de la gestion dans l'éducation - impacts sur les systèmes d'information et sur la décentralisation de la décision. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1982. (Reports, studies S.95).

SEMINARIO IBEROAMERICANO DE ADMINISTRACION EDUCATIVA. 1. Madrid, 13-17 Febrero 1978. Informe final, conclusiones, documentación. Madrid: Instituto Nacional de Ciencias de la Educación, 1978. 2 vols.

SERGIOVANNI, Thomas J. /et al/. Educational governance and administration. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1980.

SILVERMAN, David. The Theory of organisations: a sociological framework. London: Heinemann, 1970.

SYMPOSIUM ON FUTURE PROGRAMMES ON INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION IN EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND PLANNING. Paris, 21-25 November 1977. Information: an essential factor in educational planning and policy. Ed. by George Psacharopoulos. Paris: Unesco, 1980.

SYMPOSIUM ON MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES AND ESTABLISHMENTS. Paris, 26-30 July 1976. Management and administration of educational services: main working document and final report of a seminar. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (ED-76/WS/106; ED-76/CONF.808/COL.10) (Reports, studies S.17).

- UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN ASIA AND OCEANIA. Basic training in educational planning and management. Bangkok: Unesco, 1982. 7 vols. Vol.1: Basic concepts and considerations in educational planning and management. Vol.2: Concerns and challenges in educational development. Vol.3: Quantitative and financial aspects of educational planning. Vol.4: Process of educational planning. Vol.5: From planning to implementation. Vol.6: General principals of management. Vol.7: Principles and problems of educational management.
- UNITED NATIONS. ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE. Multi-level planning and decision-making; Papers presented to the Sixth Meeting of Senior Economic Advisers to ECE Governments. /Geneva, 4-9 November 1968/. New York: United Nations, 1970. (E/ECE/750).
- UNITED NATIONS RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT. The Quest for a unified approach to development: an UNRISD report. Geneva: UNRISD, 1980. (Report No.80.3).
- WARWICK, Donald. Integrating planning and implementation: a transactional approach. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Institute for International Development, Harvard University, 1979. (Development discussion paper No.63).
- WORLD BANK. Education sector policy paper. 3rd ed. Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 1980.

2. BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND PERIODICALS ON EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

- BIBLIOGRAPHIES

- BASILE, Anne. Annotated bibliography on practice and research in educational administration and management. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1979. (Reports, studies S.65).
- COLLINS, J.E. Selected bibliographical notes on information systems for educational administration. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1982. (IIEP/Prg.CM/82.15(Rev.1)) /IIEP/RP/347. Document prepared for the IIEP research project on "Educational Administration and Information—Communication".
- EDUCATIONAL administration. Annotated bibliography. In: Educational Documentation and Information, No.211, 2nd Quarter 1979. Also published in French. (issue).
- EDUCATIONAL administration: bibliography. In: Educafrica, Vol.1, No.2, December 1974, p.107-114. Also published in French.

Bibliography

MINOT, Jacques and DELCAUX, M. L'Administration de l'éducation: essai de bibliographie. Paris: Institut National d'Administration Scolaire et Universitaire, 1974. (Les Cahiers de l'INAS).

UNESCO. DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND PLANNING. Bibliographie sur l'administration de l'éducation par la Division des Politiques et de la Planification de l'Education; avec la collaboration de Anne Basile. Paris: Unesco, Division des Politiques et de la Planification de l'Education, 1978. (Rapports, études S.101) (ED-82/WS/117).

- PERIODICALS ON ADMINISTRATION

AFRICAN ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES / CAHIERS AFRICAINS D'ADMINISTRATION PUBLIQUE. Centre Africain de Formation et de Recherche Administrative pour le Développement, CAFRAD, B.P. 310, Tanger, Maroc. (b-annual/bi-annuel).

DECENTRALIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT REVIEW. Institute of International Studies, 2150 Shallock Avenue, Suite 400, Berkeley, California, USA.

INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES. International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 25, rue de la Charité, B-1040 Brussels, Belgium. (quarterly).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT. (Journal of the Royal Institute of Public Administration). John Wiley and Sons Ltd, Roffins Lane, Chichester, Sussex PO191UD, United Kingdom. (quarterly) (formerly: Journal of Administration Overseas).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION REVIEW. American Society for Public Administration, 1225 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, USA. (bi-monthly)

REVUE FRANÇAISE D'ADMINISTRATION PUBLIQUE. Institut International d'Administration Publique, 2, avenue de l'Observatoire, 75006 Paris. (trimestriel)

- PERIODICALS ON EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

ADMINISTRATION ET EDUCATION. Bulletin de l'Association Française des Administrateurs de l'Education, Lycée Henri IV, 23, rue Clavis, 75005 Paris. (trimestriel).

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION ABSTRACTS. University Council for Educational Administration, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210, USA. (3 per year).

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION QUARTERLY. University Council for Educational Administration, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210, USA. (Distributed by Sage Publications) (quarterly).

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION. British Educational Administration Society. Longman Group Limited, Subscription (Journals) Department, Fourth Avenue, Harlow, Essex CM19 5AA, United Kingdom. (Formerly: Educational Administration) (3 per year).

JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION. University of New England, Armidale, N.S.W., Australia 2351. (bi-annual).

STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION. Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, University of New England, Armidale, N.S.W., Australia 2351. (quarterly).

3. ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION REFORM AT THE NATIONAL AND SUB-NATIONAL LEVELS.

ARIYADASA, K.D. Management of educational reforms in Sri Lanka. Paris: Unesco, 1976. (International Bureau of Education. Experiments and innovations in education no.25). Study prepared for the Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development.

BEYNON, John, BRANCH, Ken and KAMAL EL JACK, A. The Management of educational facilities programmes: a focus on community participation and self-reliance; three seminar papers. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (ED-77/WS/36) (Reports, studies S.29). Seminar for field experts in educational planning and their counterparts on ways and means of improving the effectiveness of educational administration within the context of educational reform, Unesco/IIEP, December 1976.

BRAY, Mark. Universal primary education in Nigeria: a study of Kano State. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1981.

DAVID, Miriam E. Reform, reactions and resources, the 3Rs of educational planning. Windsor, United Kingdom: NFER Publishing Company, 1977.

DELEON, A. and KLUCHNIKOV, B.K. Educational reforms: a synthesis of major problems and operational objectives; two introductory seminar papers. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (ED-77/WS/52) (Reports, studies S.34). Seminar for field experts in educational planning and their counterparts on ways and means of improving the effectiveness of educational administration within the context of educational reform, Unesco/IIEP, Paris, December 1976.

Bibliography

- GUTIERREZ RENON, Alberto. Administración y gestión de la educación: las funciones de la administración de la educación y la formación de administradores de la educación. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1981. (Reports, studies TM/D2/2.1(S)) (ED-81/WS/48).
- IIEP SEMINAR ON ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM. Bangkok, 21-25 February 1977. Administrative support for educational reform: final report of an IIEP/ROEA seminar held at Bangkok, 21-25 February 1977. Ed. by Raymond F. Lyons. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1977.
- IIEP TALLER SOBRE EXPERIENCIAS DE IMPLEMENTACION DE REFORMAS EDUCATIVAS EN AMERICA LATINA. Managua, Nicaragua, septiemre 1981. Informe provisional. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1983. (IIEP/S71) Seminar jointly organized by the IIEP and the Ministerio de Educación de Nicaragua.
- KINUNDA, Michael J. Certain aspects of the implementation of reforms in education. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1969. (IIEP occasional paper No.14).
- LOUEKE, Basile. Les Organisations bureaucratiques dans une "cité éducative": le cas de l'Afrique noire. Québec: Faculté des sciences de l'éducation, Université Laval, 197-. (Projet Ouest-Africain de Formation à la recherche évaluative en éducation. Etude No.1).
- MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS OF EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN THE 1970's AND 1980's: EXPERIENCES AND PROSPECTS. MEETING OF EXPERTS. Paris, 24-28 October 1977. Documents. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (ED-77/CONF.628). Also published in French.
- M'BODJE, Moussa George. Rapport concernant la deuxième phase de la réforme dans le secteur de l'école élémentaire au Sénégal. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S56/11F(Rev.1)) Séminaire inter-agence sur l'Organisation des réformes de l'éducation au niveau local, Paris, IIEP, 27-30 novembre 1979.
- NASSIF, Ricardo. Administration et gestion de l'éducation: l'administration des innovations éducatives: approche du problème à partir de trois expériences significatives. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1981. (Reports, studies C.99) (ED-81/WS/50).
- NOONAN, Richard. Monitoring educational reforms: toward a methodological framework. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S56/10A/(Rev.1)). Inter-agency seminar on Organisation of Educational Reform at the Local Level, Paris, IIEP, 27-30 November 1979. Also published in French.
- ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT. CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION. Case studies of educational innovation. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1973. 4 vols. Vol.I: At the central level. Vol.II: At the regional level. Vol.III: At the school level. Vol.IV: Strategies for innovation in education. Also published in French.

- PANDIT, H.N. Critical appraisal of the plan for implementation of educational reform in Nigeria during 1980-1990. In: Studies on educational costs, budgeting and manpower economics in Nigeria, Vol.1 Ibadan (Nigeria): Department of Educational Management, University of Ibadan, 1978-79.
- PRIDHAM, Pippa. The Problems of educational reform in Italy: the case of Decreti Delegati. In: Comparative Education, Vol.14, No.3, October 1978, p.223-241.
- REIFF, Hans. The Management of educational reforms: towards a systems approach. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies S.16) (ED/76/WS/104) (IIEP/S35/5A). /Paper prepared for the IIEP seminar on the planning of learning arrangements of all kinds for local communities, Paris, 9-17 December 1974/.
- RASSEKH, Shapour. The Problems and promises of organization of education reforms at the local level: the example of reforms aiming at better preparation of students for work and employment. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S56/18A(Rev.1)). Inter-agency seminar on the "Organization of educational reforms at the local level", Paris, IIEP, 27-30 November 1979. Also published in French.
- RONOWISROYO, Soenardi and DIRSTINE, Richard M. Indonesia's experience in the management of integrated education services, their data base and instruction methods: three seminar papers. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1978. (Reports, studies C.27) (ED-77/WS/40). Seminar for field experts in educational planning and their counterparts on ways and means of improving the effectiveness of educational administration within the context of educational reform, Unesco/IIEP, Paris, December 1976.
- SIEBER, S.D. The Organizational dilemma of educational change models: towards a solution. In: Interchange, Vol.7, No.2, 1976/77.
- SEMINAR FOR FIELD EXPERTS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND THEIR COUNTERPARTS ON WAYS AND MEANS OF IMPROVING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM. Paris, 9-17 December 1976. Final report. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (ED-77/WS/45) (Seminar jointly organized by Unesco and the International Institute for Educational Planning. Unesco ref: ED-76/CONF.735; IIEP ref: IIEP/S40).
- TANZANIA/UNICEF/UNESCO PRIMARY EDUCATION REFORM PROJECT. MTUU. /Mpango wa Tanzania/UNICEF/UNESCO - Tanzania/UNICEF/UNESCO Primary Education Reform Project/. Dar es-Salaam: Ministry of National Education, 1978. 3 vols. Vol.1: MTUU: its role in the reform of primary education in Tanzania: 1969-1976 /edited by C.A. Auger and R.M. Haule/, 1978. Vol.2: MTUU: its role in the reform of primary education in Tanzania: 1969-1976 /edited by R.M. Haule and R.Satterphwate/, 1978. Vol.3: MTUU: basic education, a community enterprise /edited by R.M. Haule/. 1979.

UNESCO. Educational reforms: experiences and prospects. Paris: Unesco, 1979. (Education on the move) Based on papers presented to a meeting held in Paris, Unesco, 24-28 October 1977. Also published in French and Spanish.

UNESCO. DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND PLANNING. L'Application des méthodes et des techniques modernes de gestion aux problèmes administratifs des réformes éducationnelles: documents préparés pour un colloque. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies S.25) (ED-77/WS/24) Présentés au colloque sur l'administration et la gestion des services et établissements d'éducation, Paris, Unesco, juillet 1976.

UPPER VOLTA. MINISTERE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE ET DE LA CULTURE. Evaluation approfondie de l'expérimentation de la réforme de l'éducation: 30 mars au 3 avril 1981. Ouagadougou: Ministère de l'Education Nationale et de la Culture, Institut National d'Education, 1981. (Projet UPV/74/035).

ZALTMAN, Gerald, FLORIO, David and SIKORSKI, Linda. Dynamic educational change: models, strategies, tactics and management. New York: Free Press; London: Collier MacMillan, 1977.

4. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AT THE LOCAL AND REGIONAL LEVEL

ARRIGADA, Patricio R., MATULIC, Juan M. and TRUCCO, C. Descentralización de la gestión educacional en Chile. Santiago de Chile: Ministerio de Hacienda, Dirección de Presupuestos, 1979-1980.

BAUMERT, Jurgen /et al7. Centralization and decentralization as determinants of educational policy in the Federal Republic of Germany, in education. Tubigen: Institute for Scientific Co-operation, Vol.22, 1980, p.66-99.

BENNETT, N. and VORAPIPATANA, K. Towards community-centered education for national harmony and development in Thailand. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (IIEP seminar paper no.13) (Contribution to the IIEP seminar on "The Planning of learning arrangements of all kinds for local communities", Paris, 9-17 December 1974) Also published in French.

CENTRO DE INVESTIGACION Y PROMOCION EDUCATIVA. Descentralización y desconcentración administrativa en la educación peruana. Lima: Centro de Investigación y Promoción Educativa, 1980.

- CENTRO INTERAMERICANO DE ESTUDIOS E INVESTIGACION PARA EL PLANEAMIENTO DE LA EDUCACION. Decentralización y deconcentración administrativa de la educación peruana. Caracas: CINTERPLAN, /s.d./.
- CHERMOUXAMEDOV, S. Ch. Evolution historique de l'éducation en Ouzbekistan. Paris: Institute International de Planification de l'Education, 1975. (Document de séminaire de l'IIPE no.12) (Contribution au séminaire de l'IIPE sur "Les Modalités d'organisation de l'enseignement en tous genres pour les collectivités locales", Paris, 9-17 décembre 1974).
- CRISPIN, A. Relationships between central and local authorities with respect to budgetary control of educational expenditures in decentralised administrative situations. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1977. (IIEP seminar paper no.40) (Contribution to the Unesco/IIEP seminar on "Ways and means of improving the effectiveness of educational administration within the context of educational reform, Paris, Unesco/IIEP, 9-17 December 1976).
- IIEP EXPERT MEETING ON PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN REMOTE RURAL AREAS. Kathmandu, Nepal, 7-11 May 1979. Report of an expert meeting prepared by Raymond F. Lyons and assisted by Joyce Collins. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980.
- IIEP SEMINAR ON ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL REFORMS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL. Paris, 27-30 November 1977. Documents. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1979. (IIEP/S56).
- KINJUNDA, M.J. Experience in Tanzania in identifying and satisfying local needs in education. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (IIEP seminar paper no.14) (Contributions to the IIIEP seminar on "The Planning of learning arrangements of all kinds for local communities", Paris, 9-17 December 1974. Also published in French.
- LYONS, Raymond F. and PRITCHARD, Mervyn W. Primary school inspection: a supporting service for education. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1976. Also published in French.
- LYONS, Raymond F. Primary school inspection in Peru. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.4) (IIIEP research report no.14).
- LYONS, Raymond F. Primary school inspection in Venezuela. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (The Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.5) (IIIEP research report no.15).
- MELET, Robert. Primary inspection in Algeria. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1976. (The Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.1) (IIIEP research report no.11). Also published in French.

OLIVERA, Carlos E. La Función supervisora en la ejecución de reformas educativas: en efoque de investigación basado en la experiencia de Costa Rica. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning; San José (Costa Rica): Ministerio de Educación Pública, 1982. (IIEP/S82/5) Taller nacional de capacitación sobre sistemas de información y comunicación en la administración y seguimiento de programas y proyectos de desarrollo educativo. 2. San José, Costa Rica, 19-30 de abril 1982.

The ORGANISATION of education in remote rural areas: an IIEP research project directed by Raymond F. Lyons. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1981.

PRITCHARD, Mervyn W. Primary school inspection in Nigeria. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (The Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.2) (IIEP research report no.12).

PRITCHARD, Mervyn W. Primary school inspection in Pakistan. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (The Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.3) (IIEP research report no.13).

PRITCHARD, Mervyn W. Primary school inspection in Zambia. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (The Organisation and staffing of the primary school inspectorate: case studies no.6) (IIEP research report no.16).

WHEELER, A.C.R. The Role of supervision in improving the teaching/learning process in Nepal. A.C.R. Wheeler with a research group from the Ministry of Education, Nepal. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP research report no.38).

5. DECENTRALIZATION

ADMINISTRACION y descentralización educativa. In: Educación Hoy, No.32, marzo-abril 1976. (issue)

AMARAL SOBRINHO, José. Una Experiencia Brasilena. El Proyecto de coordinación y asistencia técnica de la enseñanza municipal (PROMUNICIPIO). Santiago de Chile: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1978. (Estudios sobre descentralización de la administración educacional en América Latina y el Caribe no.2).

- BELSHAW, D.G.R. Decentralized planning and poverty - focussed rural development: intra-regional planning in Tanzania. A Research report. Dar es-Salaam: University of Dar es-Salaam, Economic Research Bureau, 1977.
- BERNEDE, J.F., GUTIERREZ RENON, A. and MEDARD, R. Problèmes de la décentralisation éducative: exemples de l'Amérique Latine; trois documents préparés pour un séminaire. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies S.30) (ED-77/WS/38) Séminaire pour les experts en planification de l'éducation sur le terrain et pour leurs homologues sur moyens et méthodes pour améliorer l'efficacité de l'administration dans le cadre d'une réforme de l'éducation, Unesco/IIEP, Paris, décembre 1976.
- BOLTON-MAGGS, John. Decentralisation of educational administration and supervision in Bangladesh: a discussion paper. Dacca: Unesco, 1978.
- BORDIA, Anil. Decentralisation in educational administration: the Third World perspective. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S63/15A) IIEP international seminar on "Micro-planning methods in formal and non-formal education", Paris, 18-21 November 1980.
- CARDO F., Andrés and DIAZ DIAZ, Hugo. Decentralización y desconcentración administrativa en la educación peruana: antecedentes y perspectivas. Lima (Peru): Centro de Investigación y Promoción Educativa, 1980.
- DESAI, Uday. A Model for management of state education system: an alternative to centralized bureaucracy. In: Journal of India Education, Vol.IV, No.4, November 1978, p.3-13.
- GUADAMUZ SANDOVAL, Lorenzo. Regionalización y descentralización de la educación: problemas y perspectivas /Costa Rica/. Guatemala: Impreso en el Departamento de Material Didáctico de Unesco, Ministerio de Educación, /1980?/. "Tema elaborado para ser presentado en el Programa Latinoamericano de magister en administración educacional de la Universidad del Valle, Cali-Colombia".
- MALIYAMKONO, T.L. The School as a force for community change in Tanzania. In: International Review of Education, Vol.26, no.3, 1980, p.335-347.
- MANAGEMENT problems in education: examples from Panama, Mali, Sri Lanka. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies C.25) (ED-77/WS/23) Prepared for the symposium on management and administration of educational services and establishments, Unesco, Paris, July 1976.
- PHILIPPINES. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE. A Handbook on decentralized educational planning (focused on the depressed, disadvantaged and underserved elementary schools. /Manila/: Department of Education and Culture, 1977.

- PHILIPPINES. MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE. Manual of operations for the decentralized educational development planning activity (DEDPA). Manila: Educational Development Projects Implementing Task Force, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1979.
- REUNION DEL PROYECTO MULTINACIONAL DE REGIONALIZACION EDUCATIVA. 1. Panamá, 25-27 de febrero de 1980. Regionalización educativa: informe final. Panamá: Universidad de Panamá, Instituto Centroamericano de Administración y Supervisión de la Educación, 1980?7. (Serie Asistencia técnica no.3) Proyecto integrado de formación, investigación y asesoría en curriculum, planeamiento y administración de la educación de la Organización de los Estados Americanos.
- REZA ESPINOZA, M. La Experiencia de la unidad descentralizada de educación de adultos y coordinación educativa para el desarrollo (UEACEDH) en la provincia de Chimborazo (Ecuador). Santiago de Chile: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1978. (Estudios sobre descentralización de la administración educativa en América Latina y el Caribe no.3).
- TANZANIA. MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION. The Decentralization of educational planning and administration in Tanzania. A Handout prepared by the Sectoral Planning Unit. Dar es-Salaam: The Ministry, 1977.
- UNESCO. DIVISION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY AND PLANNING. Eleven experiences in innovations in decentralization of educational administration and management of local resources edited by the Division of Educational Policy and Planning in cooperation with Polymnia Zagefka Yannakopoulos. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1980. (Reports, studies C.91) (LD-80/WS/120). Also published in French.
- VILLALOBOS ZUNIGA, Gilbert. La Experiencia Costarricense de creación de las direcciones regionales de educación. Santiago de Chile: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1978. (Estudios sobre descentralización de la administración educativa en América Latina y el Caribe no.1).

6. NUCLEARIZATION

- CARDENAS L. José Elias. Acciones de descentralización y nuclearización educativa en el Ecuador. Santiago de Chile: Unesco, Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1978. (Estudios sobre descentralización de la administración educativa en América Latina y el Caribe no.4).
- CARDO, Andrés. Peru: the educational reform and the Nuclear System. In: Prospects, vol.11, no.2, 1981, p.180-191. Also published in French and Spanish.

- CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND PROMOTION. (CIPE). Peru. The Educational reform and the nuclear systems in Peru. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S56/13A(Rev.2)). IIEP seminar on the "Organisation of educational reforms at the local level", Paris, IIEP, 27-30 November 1979. Also published in French.
- COLOMBIA. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION NACIONAL. Nuclearización: seminario de inducción para directores de núcleo. Valle del Cauca: Secretaría de Educación Departamental, 1980.
- JUAREZ TOLEDA, Luis Adolfo. La Nuclearización educativa: problemas y perspectivas; principales conclusiones y sugerencias de la síntesis de los seminarios-talleres; Guatemala, Honduras y Panamá. Guatemala: Unesco, Proyecto Red de Sistemas Educativos para el desarrollo en Centroamericana y Panamá, 1978.
- MALPICA FAUSTOR, Carlos. La Administración de la educación en el Perú: problemas y perspectivas. Lima: /s.n./, 1978. "Presentado en el Primer seminario Iberoamericano de administración educativa, Madrid, España, 13-17 de febrero de 1978".
- MALPICA FAUSTOR, Carlos. Cambio radical del proceso: nuclearización. Lima: Instituto Nacional de Investigación y Desarrollo de la Educación, 1978. VIII Curso multinacional de planeamiento de la educación, Lima, 1978. Tomado de un suplemento Laboral diario La Prensa, 23 Marzo 1978.
- MALPICA FAUSTOR, Carlos. Education and the community in the Peruvian educational reform. In: International Review of Education, Vol.26, No.3, 1980, p.357-367.
- PERU. INSTITUTO NACIONAL DE INVESTIGACION Y DESARROLLO DE LA EDUCACION. Manual para el diagnóstico situacional del NEC. Lima: INIDE, 1975.
- PERU. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION. El Consejo educativo comunal: CONSECOM. Lima: Ministerio de Educación, Unidad de Nuclearización, 1974. (Cartilla No.2).
- PERU. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION AND CENTRO REGIONAL DE CONSTRUCCIONES ESCOLARES PARA AMERICA LATINA Y LA REGION DEL CARIBE. Guía metodológica: proyecto de implementación física de los núcleos educativos comunales. Lima: Ministerio de Educación; CONESCAL, 1975.
- PERU. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION AND CENTRO REGIONAL DE CONSTRUCCIONES ESCOLARES PARA AMERICA LATINA Y LA REGION DEL CARIBE. Manual para la estructuración de los núcleos educativos comunales. Lima: Ministerio de Educación; CONESCAL, 1974.
- PERU. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION. Microplanificación educativa a nivel de NEC rural: documento orientador. Lima: Ministerio de Educación, Oficina de Planificación Educativa, 1982.
- PERU. MINISTERIO DE EDUCACION. El Núcleo educativo comunal. Lima: Ministerio de Educación, Unidad de Nuclearización, 1974. (Cartilla no.1).

REUNION DE GRUPO DE TRABAJO SOBRE NUCLEARIZACION EDUCATIVA. 1. San Salvador, 23-26 marzo 1976. Informe del Grupo de trabajo No.4. Guatemala: Unesco, Proyecto Red de Sistemas Educativos para el desarrollo en Centroamérica y Panama. /s.d./ (PNUD/UNESCO/RLA/79/062).

RIVERO HERRERA, José. La Nuclearización educativa en Villa El Salvador (Peru). Santiago de Chile: Oficina Regional de Educación de la Unesco para América Latina y el Caribe, 1978. (Estudios sobre: metodología de planificación de la educación en áreas urbanas marginales en América Latina y el Caribe No.1).

SEMINARIO TALLER CENTROAMERICANO SOBRE NUCLEARIZACION EDUCATIVA. Santa Lucía Utatlan, Solola, Guatemala, 23 agosto - 4 septiembre 1976. Informe final. Guatemala: Unesco, Proyecto Red de Sistemas Educativos para el desarrollo en Centroamérica y Panamá. /s.d./ (PNUD/UNESCO/RLA/79/062).

7. PARTICIPATORY PROCESS IN EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

ABRAHAMSSON, Bengt. Bureaucracy or participation: the logic of organization. Beverly Hills, Calif.; London: Sage, 1977. (Sage library of social research no.51).

BARRIGA-PUENTE, P. Educación no formal y participación comunitaria: la experiencia del Ecuador. In: Assignment children/Les Carnets de l'Enfance, No.44, October-November 1978, p.67-78.

BUGINCOURT, Jacques. Identificación de las zonas de pobreza en América Central y Panamá: medida de las disparidades regionales y de la participación de las poblaciones en la formulación de sus necesidades educativas. Guatemala: Unesco, Proyecto Red de Sistemas Educativos para el Desarrollo en Centroamérica y Panamá, 1978. (Estudios y seminarios CEC-Unesco-UNICEF sobre necesidades educativas básicas de la población rural en el area centroamericana). Also published in French.

BYRAM, Martin L., KUATE, Catherine B. and MATENGE, K. Botswana takes participatory approach to mass media educational campaign. In: Development Communication Report, No.32, October 1980, p.6-8.

CARR-HILL, Roy. Participatory planning in education: testing some concepts. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies S.15).

- CLIFTON, Fred. Popular participation: notes on the state-of-the-art. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1982. (IIEP/S75/6(Rev.1)). Workshop on "Educational and integrated rural development", Paris, IIEP, 2-4 November 1981.
- COOMBS, Fred S. and MERRITT, Richard L. The Public's role in educational policy-making: an international view. In: Education and Urban Society, Vol.9, No.2, February 1977, p.167-196.
- EDUCATION et participation populaire / Education and popular participation. In: Les Carnets de l'Enfance/Assignment Children, No.44, Octobre-Décembre 1978. (issue).
- ENVIRONNEMENT ET DEVELOPPEMENT DU TIERS MONDE (Sénégal). Echange d'expérience et formation en matière de développement des communautés de base et de technologies adaptées Afrique/Asie/Amérique latine: compte-rendu de stage et propositions. Dakar: ENDA T.M., 1979.
- EVANS, David R. Responsive educational planning: myth or reality? Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1977. (IIEP occasional papers No.47). Also published in French.
- EXPERT MEETING ON THE POSSIBILITIES OF INSTITUTIONALIZING THE PARTICIPATION OF THE PEOPLE IN DEVELOPMENT, TAKING INTO ACCOUNT DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND CULTURAL SITUATIONS, Dakar, Senegal, 10-14 December 1979. /Documents7. Paris: Unesco, 1979-80. (SS-79/CONF. 601).
- FRANCO, Carlos. Cinq problèmes fondamentaux du processus d'institutionnalisation de la participation au Pérou. Paris: Unesco, 1979. (SS-79/CONF.601/7). In: Expert meeting on the possibilities of institutionalizing the participation of the people in development, taking into account different socioeconomic, political and cultural situations, Dakar, Senegal, 10-14 December 1979.
- FERIR, G. Participation in education in Europe. Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Co-operation, Council of Europe, 1977. Also published in French.
- FIBBI, Rosita. Les Districts scolaires en Italie: un exemple de gestion participative. In: Education et Recherche, Vol.3, No.3, 1981, p.311-321.
- GRASSIE, McCrae C. Participatory planning in education. Paris: Unesco, International Institute for Educational Planning, 1974. (IIEP occasional papers No.36).
- INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES, 25th, Rome, 6-11 September 1971. The Participation of users or directly interested persons in national education administration: general report. Ed. by Henri Buch. Brussels: International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1972.

- LE BOTERF, Guy. La Participation des communautés à l'administration de l'éducation. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1980. (Reports, studies S.84) (ED-80/WS/118).
- LE BOTERF, Guy. Formation et autogestion. Paris: Editions ESF, 1974.
- LYONS, Raymond F. Administrative and organisational problems in rural education, with special attention to the modalities of community participation in decision-making. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1975. (IIEP seminar paper No.17). (Contributions to the IIEP seminar on "The Planning problems in rural education", Paris, IIEP, 13-17 October 1975). Also published in French.
- MURPHY, Nora. Rural education and social participation. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1977. (IIEP/RP/23/7A).
- ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT. Participatory planning in education. Paris: OECD, 1974. Also published in French.
- OTERO, Oliveros F. La Participación en los centros educativos. Pamplona (Spain): Ediciones Universidad de Navarra, 1974. (Colección ICE no.12).
- OXENHAM, John and CHAMBERS, Robert. Organising education and training for rural development: problems and challenges. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1978. (IIEP/RP23/12A(Prov.)) (IIEP working paper) IIEP research project on "The Administration and organisation of education in rural areas".
- PARTICIPACION y democracia en la enseñanza. In: Revista de Educación (Madrid), No.252, septiembre/octubre 1977. (issue).
- PIGOZZI, Mary Joy. Participation in non-formal education projects: some possible negative outcomes. In: Convergence, Vol.15, No.3, 1982, p.6-18.
- PASSEKH, Shapour. Introduction au débat sur la "participation". Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1979. (IIEP/S56/18F/Supp.(Rev.1)) Séminaire inter-agence sur l'Organisation des réformes de l'éducation au niveau local, Paris, IIEP, 27-30 November 1979.
- SARRAMONA LOPEZ, Jaime. Participación de los alumnos en al gestión escolar. In: Revista de Educación (Madrid), Vol.25, No.252, septiembre/octubre 1977.
- SELF-management in education systems. Paris: Unesco, 1981. (Educational studies and documents No.39). Also published in French and Spanish.
- SUTARIA, Minda. Management and evaluation of reforms in Philippines elementary education: two complementary cases. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S56/5A(Rev.1)) Inter-agency seminar on Organisation of educational reforms at the local level, Paris, IIEP, 27-30 November 1979. Also published in French.

- VERA GODOY, Rodrigo, MARSHALL, Maria Teresa and DROGUETT, Ramino. Experiencia en una localidad de Melpilla, Chile. Santiago de Chile: Oficina Regional de Educación de la Unesco para América Latina y el Caribe, 1980. (Estudios sobre participación de la población campesina en la planificación de la educación al nivel local No.1).
- WESTLEY, William A. Participation and change: a socio-technical approach to schools. Paris: Unesco, Division for the Study of Development, 1981. (Reports, studies PAR 27E).
8. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMES AT THE DIFFERENT POLITICO-ADMINISTRATIVE LEVELS
- BHANDARI, R.K. Regional and local planning for universalisation of elementary education in India. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1978. (IIEP/FEL/78.4).
- CARRON, Gabriel and TA NGOC, Châu. Reduction of regional disparities: the role of educational planning. Paris: The Unesco Press, 1981. Also published in French.
- CHANG, Paul Min Phang. The Role of the administrators as a media in the development and implementation of educational policy /Malaysia/. In: Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration. Ed. by Robin H. Farquhar and Ian E. Housego. Vancouver, B.C.: Education-Extension, Centre for Continuing Education, University of British Columbia, 1980, p.88-97.
- CRISPIN, A. Relationships between central and local authorities with respect to budgetary control of educational expenditures in decentralised administrative situations. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1977. (IIEP seminar paper no.40) (Contribution to the Unesco/IIEP seminar on "Ways and means of improving the effectiveness of educational administration within the context of educational reform, Paris, IIEP, 9-17 December 1976).
- DESAI, Uday. A Model for management of state education system: an alternative to centralized bureaucracy. In: Journal of Indian Education, Vol.IV, No.4, November 1978, p.3-13.
- HILHORST, J.C.M. Regional planning in Peru 1968-77: top-down or bottom-up? The Hague: Institute for Social Studies, 1980. (ISS occasional papers no.83).

- HUERTA DIAZ, G. Establishing relations between the local, regional and national levels: the case of Peru. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1980. (IIEP/S63/3A) IIEP international seminar on "Microplanning methods in formal and non-formal education", Paris, IIEP, 18-21 November 1980. Also published in French and Spanish.
- KEMENES, Ernő. Educational administration and management. Structures and functions at national, regional and local levels, dealing with educational administration in Hungary - a case study. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1983. (Reports, studies C.103).
- NICHOLSON, R.M. The Role of administrator as a mediator in the implementation of educational policy: a case study of the Eastern Caribbean /Sta Lucia/. In: Canadian and Comparative Educational Education. Ed. by Robin H. Farquhar and Ian E. Housego. Vancouver, B.C.: Education-Extension, Centre for Continuing Education, University of British Columbia, 1980, p.132-136.
- ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT. CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION. Case studies of educational innovation. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1973. 4 vols. Vol.I: At the central level. Vol.II: At the regional level. Vol.III: At the school level. Vol.IV: Strategies for innovation in education. Also published in French.
- PEREZ, Victor L. Sistemas de información para apoyar la toma de decisiones en la administración y gestión educacional. Santiago de Chile: Unesco, Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe, 1980.
- REGIONAL STAFF DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT. IMPROVEMENT OF IMPLEMENTATION CAPACITIES. Manila, 4-25 October 1982. Report. Bangkok: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific, 1983.
- La REGIONALIZACION educativa en la América Latina. /1ra parte/. In: La Educación, Vol.25, No.87, 1981, p.1-120. (issue).
- La REGIONALIZACION educativa en América Latina. /2da parte/. In: La Educación, Vol.25, No.88, 1982, p.1-134. (issue).
- TA NGOC, Châu. Implementing universal primary education within a context of rapid population growth: the problem of regional disparities with special reference. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1977. (Reports, studies C.23) Prepared for the Unesco regional seminar of experts on population dynamics and educational planning in Asia, Bangkok, September 1973.
- UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN. Educational planning methodology for the integrated development of rural areas. Santiago de Chile: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1979.

UNESCO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN.

Notas para una metodología de planificación de la educación para el desarrollo integrado de las zonas rurales. Santiago de Chile: Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1978. (Taller regional sobre metodología de planeamiento de la educación para el desarrollo integrado de áreas rurales, Brasilia, 6-10 noviembre 1978).

ZAGEFKA YANNAKOPULOS, Polymnia and MOHOR, Selim. Administration et gestion de l'éducation: l'appui administratif au développement coordonné de l'éducation scolaire et non scolaire. Paris: Unesco, Division of Educational Policy and Planning, 1982. (Reports, studies S.94) (ED-82/WS/7).